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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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SCHOOLS?**

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SECTION

The present and future role of the junior high school in the educational program will be discussed

by Earl R. Douglass, Director, College of Education, University of Colorado, Helen J. Rogers, Principal, Louis Pasteur Junior High School, Los Angeles and one other leader (to be announced).

SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE SECTION

"What Parents, Teachers, Students, and Graduates Think of the Secondary School" and "What Are Schools Doing About It?" will be discussed

by Harold C. Hand and C. W. Sanford, University of Illinois, directors of the Illinois Curriculum Study, assisted by school principals from several other states.

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A limited number of seats may be available for those who cannot attend the banquet. Seats for speaking program will not be available until 8:30 P. M. Members, \$1; nonmembers, \$3 registration badge.

Sunday Afternoon, February 19, 1950

Exhibits of school materials, equipment, supplies

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Hospitality Hour for all members

Sunday Evening, February 19, 1950

Concert, "Negro Spirituals" by Lincoln High School, Kansas City, Missouri

Playlet, "The Ins and Outs" by Shawnee Mission High School, Merriam, Kansas

Opera, "Down in the Valley" by Kansas City Schools

Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, February 20-22, 1950

Morning and evening general sessions and morning session on Wednesday.

HIGH LIGHTS ON THESE SESSIONS

Addresses on

THE CITIZEN'S ROLE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

by Roy E. Larsen, President, TIME, Inc.; Chairman, National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools

THE ADMINISTRATOR'S ROLE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

by Thomas H. Briggs, Emeritus Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University

UNESCO LOOKS UP

by George D. Stoddard, President, University of Illinois; Chairman, United States National Commission for UNESCO

ORGANIZING THE CURRICULUM TO MEET YOUTH'S NEEDS

by J. Paul Leonard, President, San Francisco State College

THE SOURCE OF OUR SALVATION

by Jeff H. Williams Attorney of Chickasha, Oklahoma

DEMOCRATIZING SCHOOLS IN GERMANY

by William F. Russell, President Teachers College, Columbia University.

UTILIZING NATURAL RESOURCES TO MEET YOUTH NEEDS

by Willard E. Goslin, Superintendent of Schools, Pasadena, California

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- How Can We Solve the Problems of Administration in the Small High School?
- What Are the Best Ways of Strengthening Our State Association Programs?
- What Is Education for Life Adjustment?
- How Can Economic Education and Understanding Be Developed in the Curriculum?
- What About Articulation of the Secondary School and College?
- What About Driver Education in Our Secondary Schools?
- What Are the Most Promising Practices in Secondary-School Administration?
- How Can Democratic Administration Be Attained by the Principal?

Tuesday Afternoon, February 21, 1950

- Teachers Discuss Their Problems with Their Principals
- What Standards and Policies for Interscholastic Athletics?
- How Influential can the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society Be in the Secondary School?
- What Place for Audio-Visual Materials in the School Program?
- How Much Home and Family Life Education for Youth?
- How May Guidance Be Effective in the Junior High School?
- What About Common Learnings in the Junior High School?
- What Are the Functions of a Community (Junior) College?
- How Can the Administrator Deal with Secret Societies in the Secondary School?
- What Curriculum for the Slow Learner?
- How Can We Administer An Activities Program for All Pupils?
- How Effective Can the High School Be as a Community Center?
- How Can Group Dynamics Be Applied to the School Staff?
- How Can Spiritual Values Be Included in the School Program?
- How Effective Is the All-Year Secondary School?
- What Need for a Public Relations Program for the Secondary School?

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Monday Afternoon, February 20, 1950

- Principals Discuss Their Problems with Their Superintendents
- What Are the Characteristics of a Modern Junior High School?
- What Are the Current Trends in the Junior College Program?
- How Can the Student Council Function More Effectively in the Secondary School?
- What Kinds of Guidance and Counseling Programs in the Senior High School?

Problems of Adolescent Adjustment

DAVID P. AUSUBEL, M.A., M.D.

I. INTRODUCTION

A Biosocial Phenomenon

A DOLESCENCE—to borrow a term from Gardner Murphy's description of the origins and structure of personality (1)—is a biosocial development in the history of the human race. Its biological foundations are at once obvious, since it is universally observable as a phylogenetic phenomenon of rapid sexual and physical maturation common to the developmental history of all mammals. Its social origins become equally apparent when we are obliged to explain why modern man alone, of all mammals, is unequipped to assume an independent adult role in intra-species life after attaining his "major physiological maturity." (2) By insisting on the biosocial nature of adolescence at the onset, we spare ourselves the pointless and unnecessary controversy that so often rages between students in the field, as to the relative importance of biological and social factors. The proponents of the former view—lacking the perspective that came only later with a knowledge of the comparative psychology of adolescence in other ethnic and social settings—were inclined to the generalization that the special features of adolescence in modern Western civilization were universal and, hence, part of our biological endowment. Those who held the latter view—over-influenced by the significance of these comparative findings—were too prone to insist that all aspects of adolescence were socially conditioned, and thus tended to ignore the common biological and psychological principles applicable to the various manifestations of adolescence in different cultures. (2)

Dr. Ausubel holds licensure as a physician in the States of Massachusetts and New York and also as a certified Mental Examiner in New York State. During the war he served as Senior Assistant Surgeon, U. S. Public Health Service. He has done psychiatric work in Germany, at the Buffalo State Hospital, and in Lexington, Kentucky. He is a lecturer in child development and adolescent psychology at Yeshiva University and psychiatrist at the Psychological Clinic. He is also writing a dissertation on "A Motivational Analysis of Gifted Children" for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Teachers College, Columbia University.

However, it is possible to carry this insistence on a biosocial approach to the origins of adolescence one step further—and apply it to the semantic problem of classification of the adjustment problems of adolescence.

Traditionally, the psychology of adolescence is divided into sub-headings indicating problems of physiological, physical, intellectual, emotional, moral, and social growth (3,4); or, as more recently by Zachry, (5) is discussed in terms of growth of attitudes and behavior relating to self, personal relationships, and social institutions. Then under each of these headings, appropriate weight is given to the biological or social factors involved. However, the scheme of classification that will be followed here will be purely an etiological one; that is, an attempt will be made to classify problems of adolescent adjustment in terms of their origin—to separate those which are primarily psychobiological from those which are essentially psycho-social. The advantages of this type of classification—which is being used with increasing frequency in medicine—over the descriptive are twofold: (a) The similarities in cause and effect relationships holding between problems in different fields having a similar etiology are not lost sight of or obscured by more obvious but superficial differences, and (b) therapeutic requirements and possibilities become more evident when maladjustments are identified and grouped in terms of origin rather than in terms of form or content.

An Etiological Classification of Adjustment Problems

What then—in terms of origin—are the main problems of adjustment in adolescence?

1. *Problems primarily originating in childhood which are aggravated by adolescence*—To begin with, it is apparent that there can be no sharp demarcation between child psychology and adolescent psychology. The distortions in personality that children develop as the result of faulty child-training cannot be conveniently discarded when these same children reach the age of puberty, but are carried over in much the same manner as residual heart lesions resulting from early childhood attacks of rheumatic fever. Yet by no stretch of the imagination could we regard the heart lesion—or the personality defect—as a problem owing its origin to a factor peculiar to adolescent development. In fact, if this were the whole story, it could be safely ignored as irrelevant to our discussion. However, we do know that increased physiological demands—referable to the sudden spurt in physical growth appearing with adolescence—may tax the reduced capacity of the damaged heart and thus precipitate symptoms in cases where none could previously be observed. Similarly, the effects of many errors in childhood personality training may be masked by benign paren-

tal influences in the home and first assume their true pathological significance under the impact of the new adjustive demands made by adolescence. To cite only one pertinent example: the shy, bookish, retiring, or excessively introverted child, who has not learned the elemental techniques for carrying on interpersonal relationships with his co-evals*, can find solace in parental companionship for his social isolation during childhood. In adolescence, however, because of the pressures that exist for emancipation from home, this compensation is no longer available at a time when peer* relationships become even more important for successful adjustment.

This type of problem which follows from maturational failures associated with the *childhood* era and which are merely carried over into the adolescent period is essentially unrelated to any of the specific developmental tasks of adolescence. It must be distinguished from those inherently psychobiological *adolescent phases* (e.g., emancipation from the home) whose peculiar mode of evolution is influenced by errors in childhood training; and, finally, from either psychobiological or psychosocial problems which evolve in relation to the new adjustive demands of adolescence (e.g., changing body image; differentiation of sex and class roles) and are relatively unconditioned by personal childhood experience.

2. *Psychobiological Developmental Problems*—A review of the different manifestations of adolescence in various cultures and times leads to the conclusion that "with variations in the social setting, the transitional period of adolescence may be more or less prolonged, fraught with more or less intense problems, [but that] the basic psychobiological principles which operate in all of these social settings should be the same." (2) Accordingly there will be developmental problems in adolescence which will be found more or less universally in all cultural environments. This must be and is so for three reasons:

(a) There are common problems incident to the very nature of development itself. There is, so to speak, a general *psychology of transition* whose principles would be as applicable to adolescence as to any other transitional period in psychological development, whether it be from infancy to childhood, or from middle-age to senescence. For example, are there any common emotional responses that are displayed in reaction to the fact of transition *per se*?

* The technical terms used to designate the age-mate associates of the adolescent.

(b) Applying the above consideration more specifically to the transitional period of adolescence, it becomes apparent that there are certain biological and psychological common denominators found in most social settings that are relatively uninfluenced in their expression by the specific nature of the cultural environment. We find, for example, that the age of sexual development—because of its actual and symbolical significance in the process of adult maturation—is almost universally regarded as the most fitting time for terminating childhood personality status and initiating the transitional period of adolescence; and that in all societies the adolescent, under the influence of new hormonal stimulation, experiences a new quality and intensity of sex consciousness and a powerful new sex urge. The very appearance of the latter creates universal psychobiological problems; e.g., the adolescent's reactions of uneasiness and bewilderment in the face of potent emotions and motivations whose control and direction represent emergent problems in adaptation. These must be distinguished from the psychosocial problems arising from the specific possibilities and techniques each society provides for their gratification, modification or repression.

(c) Finally, as already indicated, there are certain inherent problems of adolescent maturation whose rate and mode of achievement are dependent upon the completion of certain preliminary steps customarily confined to the childhood period. The problem of emancipation, for example, is one which adolescents must face in every time and every culture. But *how* and *whether* they solve this problem seems to depend *more* on variability in universally distributed methods of child training than on variability in the social conditions operable in a given cultural environment.

3. *Psychosocial Problems*—In contrast to the psychobiological problems there are a vast number of adolescent problems which owe their origin to the particular way in which a given society undertakes to handle or control the period of adolescence. In every society there are a unique set of new social demands which confront the emergent adolescent. These demands are reinforced by formalized attitudes, taboos, procedures and institutions all specifically dedicated to the regulation of adolescence. Thus, while the psychobiological problems of emancipation and transition are universal, problems related to the length, the ease, and the rate of change of the transitional period are specifically conditioned by the unique nature of the social attitudes and institutions (pertaining to adolescence) which prevail in the individual culture.

In addition to these social phenomena admittedly concerned with the regulation of the adolescent transitional period—whether they consist of primitive initiation ceremonies or complex educational processes—there are other general characteristics of a social order, bearing no specific or intended relation to the regulation of adolescence, but which, nevertheless affect its development profoundly. For example, what effect does war, depression, rapid social change, conflicting cultural values, and restriction of employment opportunities have on the nature of adolescence?

An attempt will now be made to systematically discuss the various psychobiological and psychosocial problems of adjustment met with during adolescence. This will be followed by a brief discussion of the main causes and types of adolescent maladjustment. And, finally, some general principles of mental hygiene applicable to adolescence will be presented.

II. PSYCHOBIOLOGICAL PROBLEMS IN ADOLESCENCE

The foregoing scheme of classification has been adopted only to facilitate analysis of adolescent adjustment problems; obviously no arbitrary line can be drawn between the psychobiological and the psychosocial which merge indistinguishably into each other and interact at countless points of junction. Hence, it must be borne in mind that classification here is not a matter of *all or none* but rather of *more or less*.

As Sherif and Cantril (2) emphasize, in the many-sided aspects of this transition from childhood to adult status, the ego plays a central and unifying role, "for shifts in objective status are reflected as ego-shifts in the psychology of the individual. Psychologically speaking, it is especially in the ego of the individual that any status problem finds its echo." (2) The crucial significance of these status changes for further ego-development makes these authors refer to adolescence as a period of "re-formation of the ego." (2)

Adolescence in Relation to the General Psychology of Transition

All transition must necessarily be difficult, since by definition it involves a loss of established status, a need to acquire new status, and an interval of variable length—corresponding to the length of the transitional period itself—in which status is marginal. Obviously, if it is to be of brief duration, no elaborate interim arrangements need be made. However, if it is to extend over a period of several years, a vague marginal status cannot remain tenable, and something more substantial than a "no man's land" between the frontiers of childhood and adulthood must be provided. But regardless of the relative adequacy of the interim status, it can never lose

its marginal nature completely. It must always be a painful state of becoming in relation to which the secure and established past is only a nostalgic memory, while the benefits of future status are tantalizingly withheld. Is it any wonder then, that *anxiety* is an almost inevitable emotional concomitant of any transitional period?

A crucial problem in the psychology of transition is to determine under what conditions it becomes a relevant possibility. What prerequisite must first be fulfilled? Either an urgent social need for a change in personality status must exist, or else internal change with respect to basic drives or personality equipment must be so overwhelming that present status becomes incompatible with the changed appearance and functioning of the individual. In the case of adolescence, both factors are present. Children cannot remain indefinitely dependent upon parents for economic support. And seemingly, with the attainment of physiological maturity, the capacity for creating a new family unit releases a powerful drive within the individual for establishing himself as a person in his own right. These new biological and social conditions unite in compelling a reorganization of personality status on a new basis of independence, which in turn requires a corresponding "re-formation of the ego." Of the two elements, the physiological seems to be the more crucial as well as the precipitating factor. In addition to the internal pressures for change which it generates, it also has important social implications; for almost universally, society reacts to the stimulus of individual sexual maturation as if it were *the* unchallengable symbol of the social need for a change in personality status. That the attainment of adult personality status is more than a matter of assuming adult responsibilities is easily demonstrable in those societies where economic necessity imposes mature economic and social tasks upon pre-adolescent boys and girls. Not only are these pre-adolescents, "while performing the tasks of adults, still treated as mere children," and unentitled to adult privileges or prerogatives, but in some respects "this premature development [does] not save them from adolescent problems after maturity."⁽²⁾ In fact, if age-mates are not similarly involved, it creates new problems and conflicts with respect to demands for relative status and for relative freedom from responsibility. (2)

Thus, transition once initiated, general forward motion in the direction of adult status is maintained and reinforced by the same pressures, internal and external, which gave it original impetus; only this time, it is spurred on by the burden of transitional anxiety which can only be lifted by the attainment of new status.

Another significant aspect in the psychology of transition is its rate of onset—the abruptness with which the old status must be terminated in the quest for the new. The period of involution, for example, precipitates less of a psychological crisis than does adolescence, because it arises so slowly, almost imperceptibly. In adolescence, however, the childhood ego seems to “disintegrate” suddenly, creating a “vacuum” and a frantic urgency for securing some new stable anchorage. (2) “Suddenly, parents and teachers . . . begin to reproach the child for lack of maturity, demanding that he show some sense, use some judgment, take some responsibility . . . and stand on his own two feet.” (7)

In any developmental process involving several component lines of growth, discrepancies in rate of growth are inevitable. The reasons for this are self-evident. In nature, the characteristics of any growth process are uniquely determined by the special conditions relevant to its development. Thus, there is no precedent for anticipating that the physiological, physical, emotional, or social aspects of growth should proceed along parallel lines. One can only anticipate that this “unevenness of the adolescent’s development will add to his difficulties.” (6)

At this point a brief summary of these divergent lines of growth might be helpful for purposes of general orientation. One might reasonably expect physiological growth in adolescence to precede emotional and social growth since (a) the emotional changes are largely dependent upon the alteration of internal body environment; and (b) social development usually begins in response to cues supplied by physical growth. Generally speaking, “the adolescent girl at about fifteen is fully mature sexually in height and in strength. The boy of eighteen is similarly developed. In other words, the adolescent is just about biologically complete even though he may still lack the judgment that comes with experience.” (8) Schock (9) regards adolescence “as a period of physiological learning . . . In the adolescent, many new physiological adjustments are being made which were unnecessary in the child and which become stabilized in the adult.” A spurt in physical growth is usually observable in adolescence, but final height seems to be inversely related to earliness in onset of pubescence, due to the inhibiting effect of the sex hormones on the pituitary growth factor. Thus, children who mature very early tend to be shorter in stature than those who mature very late. (10) Jones (11) found that manual strength is more highly correlated with pubertal maturing than with chronological age; but still, muscle strength tends to lag behind muscle mass. (12) Very rapid physical growth not only imposes physiological strain on the organism but also pre-

capitates too sudden a need for acquiring new patterns of physical co-ordination consonant with increased physical capacity. (13) It is this factor together with the asynchrony of physical development (*e.g.*, leg length *versus* stem length) characteristic of adolescence (12) which is responsible for the "gangliness" and awkwardness so common in this age group. Stoltz and Stoltz (12) also call attention to the disproportionately rapid genital growth during adolescence which contrasts so markedly with its arrested growth during childhood.

With respect to mental growth, the situation is entirely different. While the capacity for learning (intelligence) may grow until eighteen or twenty, (11) there is every indication that it develops in accordance with the earlier pattern of adherence to chronological age. Of all the growth components in adolescence, it is the least responsive to the stimulus of sexual maturation. (14) With age, the bright tend to grow away from the dull, with the maximum divergence in learning capacity appearing towards the close of adolescence. (15)

In the case of intellect and judgment, the lack of growth spurt concomitant with sexual maturation is even more noticeable than in the case of intelligence; since, unlike the latter, not only do these functions exhibit a longer period of chronological growth, but they may also be inversely affected by the emotional instability characteristic of adolescence. (16)

Emotional and social growth, on the other hand, seem to follow still another pattern. There is a tremendous initial spurt in response to sexual maturation, which quickly levels off. This is followed by a long period of very slow growth corresponding to the prolonged interim status typical of adolescence in our culture. Immediately following pubescence, marked changes are noted in social activities, heterosexual interests, and in vocational interests. (17) Rapid initial changes are also registered in *ego*-status, body-image, emancipation from the home, sex role, *etc.* How the prolongation of adolescence retards social and emotional growth will be discussed at length in a later section. Here it will suffice to point out the main consequences of these discrepancies in rate of growth.

Since in any particular segment of behavior the adolescent can only function as a total personality, the attainment of adult status must be postponed until *all* of the major lines of growth are completed. Thus, the first consequence of any growth-discrepancy is that earlier-maturing functions, which if considered solely in terms of their own degree of maturity would be ready for earlier use, must still await the maturation of other functions before they can be effectively or fully employed; *e.g.*, the adolescent's greater

muscle mass can be fully utilized only after neuromuscular patterns of co-ordination are set up. Where new functions are associated with powerful drives, e.g., those related to sex, such postponement of function may give rise to serious frustrations and maladjustments. Complete sexual gratification demands more than physiological maturity. Also required are the emotional development and the social and economic independence that go with a total adult personality. Furthermore, not only is the effective operation of earlier-maturing functions impeded by delay in the maturation of related functions, but the former's *rate of growth* is also retarded. The unnatural prolongation of sub-adulthood in our society, for example, postpones complete emancipation from the home and full psychosexual development much longer than is observable in most other cultures.

The Problem of Hormonally-Inspired Sex Consciousness

With all due respect for the existence of sex-consciousness and the need for controlling sex drives during childhood (18, 19), it is still necessary to conclude that the new quality and intensity of hormonally-inspired sex drive and sex consciousness appearing at adolescence create a relatively new problem in adaptation. Children are certainly not unaware of sex differences or devoid of curiosity about sex matters, but the matter of sexual expression assumes such compelling new urgency and so many rich new feeling-tones during adolescence that qualitatively the problems of control and direction are no longer recognizable as those present during childhood. Hence, it is to be expected that regardless of the various types of outlet (or lack of outlet) provided for this drive in different societies, "the stirring of sexual instincts (resulting from the increased production of sex hormones within the adolescent's own body) will give rise" to universal feelings of uneasiness and bewilderment in relation to the emergent needs for their control and direction. Whether he feels shame or pleasure, guilt or joy, is another matter which is determined by family or cultural conditioning. But we do know that "until the individual can reconcile [these new developments] in his own internal environment with his social and cultural environment, some degree of conflict and physiological turmoil will likely prevail."(9)

The Problem of Recasting Body-Image

Accompanying the striking changes in physical and sexual appearance during adolescence is the sudden need to revise the body-image which had proved adequate enough for several pre-adolescent years. (12) Changes in body-image customarily lag behind actual bodily changes, since the latter are ordinarily gradual in occurrence, and hence can be absorbed within

the more general scope of the former. But during adolescence, the marked changes in size and contour as well as "new sensory experiences from developing sex organs . . . all tend to focus the attention of a boy or girl on his body" (12) so that the old body-image becomes incompatible with the new perception of the physical appearance and bodily dimensions of self. "These bodily experiences are the not-to-be-ignored signs of growing up and become in a certain sense the symbol of emerging manhood or womanhood. The changing body becomes a symbol not only of being different from last month or last year but also of a new attitude towards self, toward others, and toward life." (12)

The Problem of Incorporating Biological Sex Role

Just as the body-image must be suddenly recast to accommodate for the far-reaching alterations in physical appearance, so must the adolescent—confronted with the accomplished fact of his sexual maturation—take active and urgent measures directed towards acceptance of his biological sex role. This step can no longer be postponed as he is made increasingly more aware of his own sexuality through the medium of his new hormonally-inspired sex drives and by virtue of "the more pronounced, somewhat stylized attention of others on his body, with sex desires . . . from age-mates now present in a developed way." (2) This awareness of his own sex is further accentuated and placed in relief by his sudden intense awareness of the developing opposite sex. (2) It is undeniable that some identification with his own sex group had already taken place, but this identification was primarily for purposes of play and carried none of the implications of biological sex role that are associated with membership in an *adult* sex clan. The physiological changes at adolescence tend to bring heterosexual and genital interests to the fore, thus weakening earlier and more vaguely directed sexual impulses and reinforcing the appropriate masculine or feminine identifications. (17)* "If the adolescent's environment is too unfavorable . . . the normal tendency to establish heterosexuality and make suitable masculine or feminine identifications may be defeated. Then the adolescent may have to fall back on homosexuality or other infantile sexual satisfactions." (17) The boy may tend to reject his sex role if his mother makes him feel that the "male's interest in sex is repulsive to a woman," or if she "clings to her son" and, thereby, interferes with his making normal contacts with girls of his own age. (7) "A girl needs her father's overt approval and outspoken admiration of herself as a young woman to help her to clarify and accept the feminine role." (7) Overidentification with

* Paraphrase of Nunberg's views, cited by Blanchard.

the sex role of the dominant parent of the opposite sex is clinically a well-recognized cause of homosexuality in both men and women.

Problems Referable to Early or Late Maturation

"Another source of psychological tension and anxiety to adolescents is the great difference in rate at which different individuals approach maturity." (9) There are wide differences in rate of maturation that are still compatible with normality, each individual developing at his own optimal rate of speed. Unfortunately, however, children and adolescents never seem to adopt this viewpoint spontaneously, and, hence, torture themselves and their age-mates over trivial deviations from the norm. As we shall see later, this attitude springs largely from the exaggerated need for conformity that is basic to the structure of the adolescent peer group. Although the psychological consequences of deviation vary, depending on differences in social and individual attitudes toward non-conformity, certain generalizations can be drawn: the slow-maturing adolescent begins to wonder if he is a biological anomaly and frequently entertains serious doubts that he will ever mature. And in view of the fact that he is at a terrific disadvantage socially, and not rarely ostracized from peer society, "it is not surprising that, in order to prove himself, he sometimes resorts to behavior which is far from socially acceptable to adults." (9) Also, "the self consciousness due to late maturation in relation to [his] own age-mates may cause the adolescent [to develop] greater or lesser degrees of shyness or timidity in his behavior" (2). Jones (20) observed that late development may cause a loss in previously held peer status in the group, "and that, when the biological innovations of adolescence are at last clearly avowed, a turning point may be reached . . . in social recognition, and in feelings of personal security." The early-maturing adolescent, on the other hand, may not only come "to feel himself a misfit" (5), but may also find himself embarrassed by the disproportionate expectations of adults. (9) Bayley and Tuddenham conclude that "the poorest adjusted among the four extreme groups [are] the early-maturing girls and the late-maturing boys" since, in a "coeducational school in which grade placement [is] largely [determined] by chronological age, [these] two groups would stand out in the school room as physically the most different," (21)

Adjusting to "Somatic Variations" (12)

Quite similar to the matter of accepting variability in rate of maturation is the problem of becoming reconciled to the physical deviations from the norm which occur at adolescence. The frequent "asynchrony of adolescent development" (12) makes it almost inevitable that an individual will

deviate markedly in at least one respect from the socially desirable standard. As Stoltz and Stoltz (12) indicate, the psychological importance of these somatic variations depends upon the individual's attitude towards same, on the general stability of his personality, and also on whether he possesses any compensatory assets. The greater significance which these bodily variations assume at adolescence is partly due to the fact that they are now associated with a sense of finality that was not present during childhood. "The tyranny of the norm" at this age is also a product of the need for ultra-conformity that is characteristic of the adolescent peer group. Hence, the adolescent is mostly concerned with conforming to the specific "norms of body proportions and growth" prevailing in his own limited circle. (2) But perhaps most important of all is the fact that, at adolescence, physical attractiveness first becomes an important value in itself because of its relevancy to the satisfaction of newly acquired heterosexual needs, and because of its significance (especially for girls) in determining relative status and prestige in the peer society.

The deviations which are most significant are those which are related to appropriate norms for masculinity and femininity. Thus, shortness in boys is most disturbing not only because it offers actual disadvantages in outdoor sports and in social dancing, but also because it is not compatible with the idealized conception of masculinity current in our culture. For the same reason, tallness, fatness, and ugliness cause equal or greater concern among girls.

The matter of becoming reconciled to limitations in physical form and appearance thus becomes one of the major adjustment problems of adolescence. It is arrived at through the alternating routes of "identification and rejection, of pride and embarrassment, of concern and ignoring." (12) In trying to accept "the reality of their appearance [adolescents strive] to make that reality as pleasant as possible. Not all boys and girls succeed in mastering this developmental task. This is evidenced in everyone's experience by individuals in adult life who continually struggle with their appearance, or in some way or another try to compensate for real or imagined defects." (22) Also, through the common mechanism of displacement of affect, anxieties of entirely different origin may be ascribed to a somatic defect. Hence, a girl may prefer to blame her unpopularity on acne, whereas the real reason may be excessive selfishness or self-centeredness.

Readjustment of Parent-Child Relationships

Emancipation from the Home—Throughout the entire animal kingdom where parents play an altruistic role in the rearing of their young, "emanci-

pation seems to be quite a natural process." (8) Also in human societies, as already pointed out, a combination of internal and external pressures makes emancipation an inevitable psychobiological task of adolescent maturation. Although the process of emancipation is influenced by innumerable social factors, attention will first be directed towards those psychological aspects of the problem which seem rooted in family structure, relatively universal in distribution, and least influenced by specific social conditions affecting interrelationships within the family.

The problem of emancipation is *not* synonymous with the more general problem of achieving adult personality status. It is merely that component part of the latter which depends upon a readjustment of the parent-child relationship on a basis that is more compatible with the adolescent's newly acquired sexual maturity and with all the implications thereof. Whereas the former is primarily a family problem, the latter is primarily a social problem. In many primitive societies, both tasks may be accomplished simultaneously. In our society, a large degree of emancipation is achieved relatively early compared to the delayed acquisition of adult social status. Through emancipation the adolescent establishes himself as a person in his own right, apart from his parents, prepared to strive for adult goals and willing to assume responsibility for the direction of his own affairs. But it is one matter to achieve this preparatory state of resolution and independence in a family setting, and still another to achieve that degree of social recognition as an adult which will afford the necessary experience in playing actual adult roles that is required for the attainment of this new personality status. Also, since it is quite impossible even to conceive of oneself as an independent adult ready for mature tasks and responsibilities in the face of prolonged socio-economic dependence, adolescents can only achieve a certain limited measure of emancipation until their economic independence is an accomplished fact.

Emancipation in the Secure Child

The long period following infancy and preceding adolescence is characterized psychologically by the child's emotional dependence on his parents. This state is the consequence of his identification with them in the position of a satellite and provides the basis for his intrinsic sense of security and adequacy. Thus, before the adolescent is prepared to assume the role of an independent adult member of society, a new balance must be struck between the dichotomous needs for dependence and independence (23), a balance much closer to the self-assertiveness of infancy than to the docile submissiveness of childhood. This requires a reassertion of volitional independence as a result of which the child's status as a satellite is replaced by his assumption of

responsibility for evolving his own goals and formulating his own plans and decisions. Short-term goals designed to provide immediate pleasure and gratification must give way to long-range objectives directed towards achieving greater self-realization and social prestige. And, finally, attitudes concerned with moral values and responsibility become detached from their moorings to parental authority, and the individual accepts the moral authority of society, becoming responsible to its demands.

This process of emancipation is not consummated as the result of an abrupt declaration of independence, but repeats the same pattern of emotional identification previously employed with the parents—the identifications merely being transferred from the parents to parental surrogates and to age-mates and, in turn, from these individuals to actual goals and values divorced from some of the implications of personal loyalty. Since this shift in loyalties implies a partial or complete repudiation of the formerly pre-eminent and unconditionally-accepted authority of the parent, it is accompanied by certain feelings of guilt which retard the rate of maturation.

As Frank points out, "in a static tradition-bound society," (7) the process of emancipation does not necessarily imply a supplantation of the family "as the principal medium through which culture operates." Here the family could still serve as the primary source of goals and standards, while the adolescent's position in relation to them merely shifts from a dependent to an independent role. In our society, however, there is an almost inevitable devaluation of the parents during adolescence (18), accompanied by a corresponding increase in the developmental influence of other adults and of the peer society. Havighurst *et al* (24), analyzing data secured from the compositions of boys and girls aged eight to eighteen on "the person I would like to be like," conclude: "The ideal self commences in childhood as an identification with a parental figure, moves during middle childhood and early adolescence through a stage of romanticism and glamour, and culminates in late adolescence as a composite of desirable characteristics which may be symbolized by an attractive visible young adult or may be simply an imaginary figure."

In the process of emancipation, the peer society—as the most important single training institution for the period of adolescent transition—plays a most significant role. Since the adolescent derives his chief feelings of status from this source, it is only natural that he should be most susceptible to the influence of its standards. "If [he seeks] to be released from parental control and from conformity to family patterns, this is largely in order that [he] may comply with the often more exacting requirements of [his] own age and sex group."

Although the actual task of emancipation is accomplished under the impact of new adjustive demands arising at adolescence, the question of its probable success or failure is really predetermined in childhood—depending upon the type of training for independence and responsibility which the child receives. Thus, although “the poor adolescent may never in his life have had an opportunity to use judgment or take responsibility,” this does not spare him from being suddenly “berated for inability to take charge of his own life.”

(7) The process of emancipation is facilitated by the parents’ consistent desire and willingness to allow the child to become an independent and self-reliant individual, and also by the child’s ability to find sources of security within himself and outside the home.

More numerous, however, are the factors which retard emancipation. In the first place, parents often display an ambivalent and inconsistent attitude towards emancipation. On the one hand, they “wish for the independence and self-sufficiency of the child”; on the other hand, “they fear the loss of love that removal of his dependency creates.” (18) Thus, at one moment parents may express alarm at the rapidity with which the child is drifting away from them and, at the next moment, seek to impress him with the urgency of standing on his own two feet. (7) Also, as Meyers (8) points out, “emancipation requires much sacrifice by the parents. They must relinquish authority” and learn the patience and restraint required to develop the capacity for self-direction in the child. Parents find it especially difficult to surrender control when they derive through this domination “a certain compensatory amount of status and affective satisfaction.” (8)

Neither is the child’s desire for emancipation “unmixed with a need for continued protection and security.” (7) He is somewhat apprehensive about his new less dependent status and not infrequently wishes that he could somehow avoid the entire unpleasant business of growing up. There is also the problem of struggling with the guilt feelings which arise when he feels compelled to renounce parental loyalties.

The precise consequences of an unsatisfactory emancipation process vary with the particular upbringing of the child. In the event that emancipation does not occur at all, an inadequate personality emerges, characterized by passivity, dependency, short-term, pleasure-seeking goals, and by lack of responsibility to the demands of society. The type of child training that is most frequently responsible for this complete failure in maturation is that which is given by the oversolicitous, over-protective, and over-indulgent parent. Sometimes, the same results are achieved by the domineering parent; the child resents being pushed too hard and reacts by passively sabotaging the

goals of maturation. In other cases of parental domination, however, there is either outright rebellion with aggressive defiant behavior, or, as Meyers points out (8) (on the basis of data from Symonds' studies) "a continued acceptance of authority on the child's part." While in the latter case the child does not grow up to be a typically irresponsible and unmotivated, inadequate personality, he remains docile, submissive, and passive, lacking independence, confidence, spontaneity, and in extreme cases, incapacity for undertaking marriage. (8) These results are more common where the domineering parent's discipline is benevolent, consistent, and acceptable to the child. "On the other hand, harsh, unreasonable, or inconsistent control may yield the gamut of undesirable social and personal maladjustments [including delinquency] even to the subsequent inability to attain a normal marital adjustment." (8)

Emancipation in the Insecure Child

The process of emancipation described above is applicable to the secure child who achieves a fair measure of emotional dependence on his parent during childhood. However, all children do not undergo the process of satellization in relation to their parents, as a result of which the infant's magically grandiose and omnipotent ego-image becomes devalued to the extent that he becomes a dependent member of the household circle instead of its center of interest and influence. Under certain conditions, the grandiose, infantile attributes of ego-organization—the unbridled urge for pleasure and immediate gratification; the notions of an independent, unfettered, and magical will, of tyrannical power, and immunity from responsibility; the petulant insistence on being waited on "hand and foot"—are not modified by the ordinary measure of submission to parental authority, and desire to gain parental approval. This situation will arise (a) if the parent—wishing to compensate through the child—continues to maintain the fiction of his infantile omnipotence, and refrains from taking the steps necessary to alter his pre-eminent status in the household; and (b) if the child feels unloved and rejected by the parent and, hence, refuses to relinquish (at least internally) the advantages and compensatory value of his infantile ego-image. Emotional satellization having occurred in neither case, the child retains his volitional independence and does not derive the benefits associated with satellization, namely, an *intrinsic* feeling of security and adequacy. Instead, he can only hope to achieve their *extrinsic* counterparts by attaining the power and prestige commensurate with his exaggerated ego-demands.

In the case of this intrinsically insecure child with exaggerated demands on life, who has not identified, with his parents, the problem of emancipation is entirely different from that of the secure child. Obviously, there is no

necessity for the re-assertion of volitional independence, since this was preserved throughout (although the rejected child is usually obliged to yield externally to superior force as a matter of expediency). Where the latter situation has been true, the desire for independence is only intensified further by an inner need to abolish any form of control which is reminiscent of the resentfully regarded parental authority.

A special problem in emancipation arises in cases where an essentially domineering parent both overvalues his child and also allows him, at first, full sway in exercising his omnipotently conceived will. Sooner or later the parent becomes alarmed at this youthful display of arrogance which he first regarded as "cute" or as infallibly predictive of future greatness. Moreover, his own domineering nature usually rebels at playing "second fiddle," and he seeks to re-establish himself as the dominant figure. The child is then not only totally unprepared for this inconsistency, but also has become quite incapable of submitting to parental authority. His natural resentment in this situation is further aggravated by the fact that this is the usual time in which most children are traditionally granted greater freedom.

The desires for achieving absolute independence and for wreaking vengeance on the resented parent become the dominant motives in life. Both aims can be best served simultaneously by adopting an attitude of obstinate perverseness, by repudiating the entire process of adult maturation, and by choosing goals and standards of behavior which are diametrically opposite to those advocated by the parent. The final result is the development of a personality which is not unlike that already described as "inadequate," except that motivational immaturity and childish irresponsibility are combined with inflated ambitions and an exaggerated need for volitional independence (which is often in marked disparity to the individual's actual executive dependence). In extreme cases, this pathological need for independence is generalized so as to include freedom from control of any sort whatsoever. The individual then sets himself up as being above any criticism or moral censure and acknowledges no responsibility to be bound by the moral authority of society.

Since the family unit cannot be set apart or insulated from the larger society of which it is a part, we may expect the process of emancipation to reflect the various social pressures continually being exerted on it. The unusual prolongation of adolescence in our society results in an extended period of partial emancipation. As Zachry (6) aptly puts it, "Being supported tends to keep the adolescent a child in his parents' house—a child whose opinions don't count, whose judgments are overridden, who is expected to seek and

follow advice. And he is no longer a child. But neither is he grown up enough to comprehend. To him, his inability to earn a living and to accept responsibility are a reflection, a sign of inadequacy. He is a failure. If the pressures become too great, the adolescent boy unable to stand the feelings of humiliation and the sense of guilt arising from the unbearable realization that he is a burden on his parents, runs away from home." (6)

The increased awareness of the true nature of social conditions—which expanding contacts outside the home provide at adolescence—gives rise to profound effects. The idealized picture which the adolescent has of his home, of his parents, and of the moral nature of the social order, may suddenly disintegrate as he gains insight for the first time into the "discrepancies between pretensions and the actual situation." (7) Adolescents may thus "become concerned about their own families, sensitive and worried about family customs and patterns which now appear peculiar, different, and embarrassing. . . . The boy or girl especially of foreign-born parents or of some conspicuously minority group may want to conceal his family from his contemporaries as a social liability. . . . [The parents in turn may] find it difficult to understand such apparent disloyalty. . . . [They] cannot see that their adolescent boy acts and speaks in such a manner just because he is so concerned about his family . . . and so eager to have them appear better than they are. It is a reversal of parent-child positions" with respect to the source of pressure for improvement." (7)

Sherif and Cantril (2) observe that "parent-youth conflict increases with the rate of social change. . . . New generations growing up in rapidly changing social surroundings resent and, at times, openly rebel against the efforts of grown-ups to shape them after their own images. . . . Adult-youth conflict reflects in a significant way the conflicts between the established generation and the younger generation." Sometimes, adolescents under these conditions come to feel that adults are incapable of understanding them. (2)

In addition to the more general factor of rate of social change, "the impact of special socio-economic events such as economic depression, the introduction of new industrial developments in a society, or even in a particular locality may produce new problems in adult-youth relationships. . . . One important result of unemployment was to undermine 'the authority of the father over the adolescent child even more frequently' than his authority over younger children, or his authority as a husband. . . . Also important was the finding that intra-family and parental conflict increased because 'father is a changed man' since he lost his work. Furthermore, conflict be-

tween father and adolescent children was found to be particularly intense when one of the children was working." (2) *

Other Sources of Parent-Youth Conflict

It should first be noted that "family conflicts do not break out suddenly at adolescence as frequently as might be assumed. . . . In clinical experience with adolescents and their parents, an increase of conflict previously present in the parent-child relationship is seen more often than friction that begins *de novo* at adolescence." (17)

"The adolescent encounters the problem of challenging parental authority as the price of his own individual maturation and of acceptance in his own age group." (7) What actually happens in most cases is that the adolescent mimics the stylized and stereotyped attitude of hostility towards adults that is fashionable in his peer group; and whether he believes in it or not is obliged to act the part, at least in public. Being forced in this way to satisfy at the same time the conflicting norms of home, school, and friends, it is inevitable that loyalty to the home will give way first, since the adolescent derives the least portion of his status from the home situation. This conflict is brought to a head if the parents adopt a hostile "either-or" attitude towards the values of the peer group. (25) Gardner (18) refers to an "untouchable phase of adolescence in which the adolescent looks for confirmation or denial of his ideas and opinions to someone—almost anyone—beyond the home. It is the age of girl chum or the boy pal whose knowledge of facts and values and estimates of worth are inevitably taken to be truer than that of the parents." (18)

Even where parents graciously surrender the reins of control, there is still room for considerable conflict. Occasions sometimes arise where they let themselves be influenced by considerations of rivalry. They have a dread of being displaced which reveals itself in the form of harsh or undeserved criticism masked as benevolent advice "for the child's own good." Sometimes even where they have no wish to interfere, force of habit gets the better of them. Children seem to feel this instinctively and withdraw from parents "for no other reason than the fact that they always are the ones to whom he has always been a helpless child. He fears to slip back into the pattern of dependence . . . and thus withdraws from all adults whom he believes will not understand, will fail to accept him for what he longs to become instead of what he feels he is." (6)

* Komarovsky's study, "The Unemployed Man and His Family" is cited here by Sherif and Cantril.

Also as Mackenzie (26) points out, parents find it very difficult to understand adolescents. They tend to project on to them their own conflicts and anxieties at a similar age. (18) They fail to recognize that "adolescents develop their own standards and codes to guide their behavior, and what is more confusing, these standards shift and change as children mature." (26) The memory of parents seems tragically short. They tend to forget that as adolescents they, too, found it necessary to defy their own parents for just and adequate cause. Hence, it not rarely happens that the parent, who himself was most rebellious as an adolescent in defense of his legitimate rights for self-determination, becomes the most ruthless in suppressing his children when they demand the same rights. Frank (7) thus concludes: "It sometimes seems as if the schools on one side and the family on the other were determined to frustrate adolescents—not so much from any conscious desire to block or hurt them, but rather from lack of understanding and insight and from inability to recognize in the growing boy and girl the emerging young man and woman." Because the parent—seen through the child's eyes—is also the representative of adult society—he (the parent) also becomes the undeserved target for the child's resentment against the deprivations, the frustrations, and the prolonged withholding of adult status to which the latter is subjected.

All of the sources of parent-youth conflict mentioned so far may be regarded as within the normal framework of adolescent development, as almost inevitable consequences of the process of emancipation. In most cases, they are phasic and transitory, terminating as adolescence itself draws to a close. But, as already indicated, there also are other sources of parent-youth conflict which arise from fundamental errors in early child training, predetermining the success or failure and the type of emancipation process that takes place.

Because the possible sources of parent-child conflict have been stressed in this section, there is no reason to conclude that considerable conflict must necessarily exist in every case or that emancipation forever terminates the parent-child relationship on a permanently disagreeable note. At least the latter situation is definitely not true in the vast majority of cases. In the first place, as Dimock* states: "The absence of parental control should not be considered an indication of maturity. The task of equipping the child for self-direction is no less formidable than the problem of getting parent and child to let go of each other in a pro-

* Quoted by Meyers (12)

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gressive fashion." Hence, once this capacity for self-direction is achieved and the turbulence of adolescence in our society is left behind, the exaggerated tension and conflict existing between parent and child are usually resolved. His acute sensitivity with respect to self-determination now laid aside, once the question of his adult status is finally settled, the child—now adult—can meet his parents with a new sense of ease. He can afford to listen attentively to their advice, neither accepting nor rejecting it because of its source, but evaluating it on the basis of its intrinsic merits and assuming responsibility himself for making the final decision. (3) Thus, the products of "the emancipated situation should include a retention of mutual trust between parent and child. It should include a continuation of respect and honor for parents and of genuine devotion and concern by the parents for the offspring." (8)

III. PSYCHOSOCIAL PROBLEMS

It has already been emphasized that many of the distinctive problems of adolescence in our culture, which hitherto were thought to be inevitable consequences of our biological endowment, are really unique by-products of the specific values, socio-economic conditions, and training institutions presently current in our society. "A survey of [the ethnological data relating to adolescence in other cultures] indicates that the problems facing the adolescent vary from culture to culture rendering the transition to adulthood more or less complicated, more or less conflicting, more or less prolonged. Such studies indicate the necessity . . . of first placing adolescent ego problems in their social settings; for significant variations and factors of social change necessarily reflect themselves in the status of the problems of adolescents who are themselves in a critical and unstable stage of transition." (2)

It is true that, from the standpoint of individual psychology, the process of emancipation results in a reorganization of personality which places a new premium on adult goals, on independence, and on individual responsibility for the direction of behavior. The social psychologist, however, wishes to determine in just *what way* these adult goals are differentiated with respect to cultural values, and in terms of class and sex roles, because the adolescent strives "to stabilize his ego values . . . in relation to his reference group, whatever this may be to him in his particular social milieu. He does his level best to incorporate into his ego . . . the norms of the group in his particular social setting." (2)

The adolescent like the child learns cultural behavior "under the impact of social controls . . . [He is] taught to react to his biological tensions in soci-

ally defined ways . . . [He learns] through the laborious processes of imitation, identification, competition [and] co-operation."(27)

The Acquisition of Adult Status

Emancipation is not synonymous with the acquisition of adult personality status. However, the adolescent does not realize this from the start. As a child, he nurtures an idealized notion of the status, privileges, and prerogatives which are accorded adolescents in our society. Thus, upon attaining his sexual and physical maturity, he somehow expects that he will be regarded as an adult. It comes as a rude awakening that in most respects he is still treated as a child. Considerable time must elapse before he completely understands the painful fact that adult status will be withheld for many years. He still has to learn that the achievement of adult status in our society is such a protracted process that it cannot be accomplished directly, but requires instead the interposition of a complex interim status which is regulated by the school on one hand and by the peer society on the other hand. The home—once so important for the regulation of the childhood era is now caught between the vice of these two more important determinants of interim status and becomes reduced to a vestigial role, often serving as a mere boarding house until he can stand on his own two feet.

In most simple societies, emancipation and the achievement of adult status—although still two distinct and separate processes—are achieved more or less concurrently within a short space of time. The latter task is usually consummated as the result of initiation ceremonies involving various traditional ordeals and rituals. (2) Then once these are successfully completed, the entire brief transitional period is happily and speedily brought to a close by the conferring of full adult status. These rites mark definite shifts in the social and economic status of the individual and, as Radin remarks, indicate the "passing of an individual from the position of an economic liability to that of an economic and social asset." (2) According to the same author, "the relative ease or difficulty and the duration of the transition in each case is especially dependent on the particular socio-economic circumstances of society . . . Psychologically, all of these steps, trials—ceremonies and preachings—which achieve the transition of the adolescent to the adult status mean formation of attitudes related to his new relative role in society, his conformity in respecting the property and sex rights of elders and interest groups, his settling down in the place assigned him by the established authority of his society."(2)

But in trying to formulate an answer to the question of what the crucial factors are in determining *when* adult status is achieved, we have to consider more than the socio-economic aspects of the situation. Mere assumption

of adult economic tasks or responsibility does not suffice to effect this transformation. Although it is undeniable "that situations such as these do contribute to the early development and sharpening of the ego," (2) the attainment of sexual maturity seems to be an almost universal precondition for the granting of adult status. Now it is apparent that the achievement of this status must await the completion of both sexual and socio-economic maturation.

Causes for the Prolongation of Adolescence in Our Society

It is a biological commonplace that "the human child has the longest infancy of all species." (13) Although it is true that in a general way the length of infancy is proportional to the length of fetal gestation and of the life span, this obviously cannot be the whole explanation, since there are animals (e.g., the elephant) who exceed us in both respects, yet have a shorter period of dependency for their young. To explain this discrepancy, it is necessary to consider that since humans have a culture, whereas animals are presumed not to have one,* human psychological development is accordingly prolonged. From this it would follow that as human societies grow more complex, the period of child training and education would necessarily have to be extended; otherwise the continuity of the social order, which depends upon the transmission of cultural values and traditions to the young, would be endangered. This at least is the theoretical premise which underlies the modern educational principle of advocating a broad academic background for all children regardless of future vocation or field of specialization. Actually, it is just as much of an institutionalized rationalization to "fill in" productively the extended period of adolescence (caused in part by the evaporation of job possibilities for youth) as it is a progressive development in education. This role of education is more transparent to colonial peoples who, witnessing it for the first time, are less indoctrinated by our rationalizations. Thus, they are more uninhibited about cursing their schooling when it does not lead to vocational opportunity. (2) It first became more apparent to us, when the sudden manpower shortage during the war resulted in a relaxation of minimum schooling laws which had heretofore been uncompromisingly defended as inviolable guardian of our culture.**

Socio-economic Factors

Undoubtedly the greatest single factor responsible for prolonging adoles-

* cf. Warden, C. J., *Emergence of Human Culture*, New York, Macmillan, 1936.

** It should be noted that whereas humanitarian concern for health and education led to the elimination of abuses in unregulated child labor, society has given little thought to the harmful effects of status deprivation produced by an almost complete removal of opportunity for adolescent work experience.

cence in our society is the unique vocational situation confronting modern generations of adolescents. In this respect, they are probably grappling with a uniquely new problem in the cultural history of the race. "In some societies, the individual is initiated into economic life during the adolescent period, [while in others] he at least seriously starts to look forward or to prepare for some trade or profession. He may [even] have to enter into the economic work of the adult world before he is fully matured physiologically." (2) "But in our industrial society," as Newton Edwards states, "conditions are such as to make it extremely difficult to provide youth with the work experience so essential for normal personality development, and it is even more difficult to open up for youths avenues leading to gainful employment of a kind that gives tone and zest to life.

"It is a significant fact that for most youth today creative labor must be had in factory, shop, or office instead of in communal family relations. But when youth turn from home and school to find part-time or full-time employment, they are faced by the ominous fact that our economy, in peacetime, cannot make full use of their productive energy. . . . So long as full employment is denied older workers, youth will stand at the threshold of occupational life, baffled and frustrated." (28) In connection with the latter point, the same author points out that there is an increasing tendency for persons in the middle and older age groups to constitute a greater proportion of the total population. Hence, since society must provide for its older workers first, job opportunities for adolescents will continue to contract under normal peace-time economic conditions. (28)

Carter points out that "the young person of today usually does not experience a quick or smooth initiation into any particular field of work by virtue of family tradition." (29) Seldom does the adolescent have any actual work experience relevant to his future occupation. Theoretically he has freedom of choice in choosing a vocation, but actually he only finds the greater choice more bewildering since he is rarely in a position to know much about the requirements or relative rewards of various occupations, which moreover, are constantly changing. (29)

Also, despite the fact that modern specialized jobs call for increased education and training, they provide much less opportunity for the exercise of individual initiative and for obtaining the personal satisfaction that comes "with an integrated view of the total accomplishment." Excessive specialization has made most jobs highly monotonous and routinized. (28) Hence, even if adolescents are fortunate enough to find employment, they do not derive the same sense of personal importance and social usefulness that comes

with greater individual participation in the planning and creative aspects of work. What is even more discouraging to the ambitions of youth is the fact, that as a result of the tremendous concentration and centralization of economic power which characterizes our industrial society today, social mobility is decreasing, "and in the struggle for status, inherited wealth and position are beginning to count for more than energy and capacity." (28)

Specific Factors Affecting the Length of Adolescence

Zachry remarks that the adolescent, "being the most subject to conflict of any member of society . . . is asked to bear an especially heavy burden in periods of social distress. Since he is neither adult nor child, society shifts its view on him as the exigencies of the situation demand." (6) Hence, the psychological effects of economic depression weigh heaviest of all on adolescents. "With their parents suffering, their own future clouded, the ordinary roads to success closed, they blindly seek a way out." (2) At such times, children must live almost indefinitely with their parents. Full emancipation and marriage are postponed nearly beyond the point of toleration. Education is lengthened even further, but is undertaken only half-heartedly, for seemingly it leads nowhere. It is under these circumstances that the characteristic emotional instability of adolescents in our culture reaches its maximum intensity. For, added to all of the psychobiological causes of this instability already considered as contributing to parent-youth conflict, is the anxiety which comes from chronic social frustration of legitimate status needs.

It is not at all surprising then that youth should look elsewhere for the satisfaction of these needs. Intra-group solidarity increases, as the quest for status is restricted to the peer group. In some instances, this leads to the formation of youth movements avowedly concerned with reforming society for the purpose of increasing economic opportunity. (27) In other cases, delinquent groups spring up, characterized by fanatical intra-group loyalty and by strict adherence to the proposition that their predatory activities are justified by society's indifferent or repressive attitude towards their aspirations for status. Such feelings are more commonly expressed by gang members from racial and ethnic minority groups who come to believe that the organized power of society is arrayed against them, that legitimate endeavor is hopelessly futile, and that organized aggression against society is the only path left open to them.

In times of war, conditions are reversed. The urgent need for manpower greatly expands vocational opportunity. The situation is also qualitatively improved for youth since factors of "endurance, speed, agility . . .

and boldness" suddenly acquire new social value. The transitional period is abruptly cut short as adolescents suddenly have "maturity thrust upon them." (27) Although this tends to accelerate personality development and reduce the harmful effects of delayed maturation to a minimum, it too is not without its disadvantages. In the first place, many adolescents are caught totally unprepared for the sudden shift in the *tempo* of development. While the inadequate personality gets along better in a military environment involving both little need for initiative and considerable direct subjugation to strong authority, the introverted individual suffers greatly by being thrown headlong into a group situation where introspection and shyness are given scant respect. Some adolescents feel completely crushed and humiliated if they are rejected for military service. Other adolescents become apprehensive over the forced interruption of education or vocational training. Girls suffer from the loss of male companionship and, concerned that sweethearts will not return or will outgrow them, rush into hasty marriages. (6) Then problems arise which are due to this too rapid transformation of status. Older workers resent the sudden influx of youngsters, and barely tolerate them. In the sudden intoxication of independence, increased hostility develops towards adult authority; youthful arrogance and conceit grow by leaps and bounds, and parent-youth conflict is intensified as parents feel that their children are "acting too big for their breeches." Sex delinquency rises amongst the younger adolescent girls who resent being "left out" of the new and awesome world of adult status precipitately opened up for their somewhat older contemporaries. (2)

Zachry (6) also points to the dangers involved when the value of human service is vastly inflated—when adolescents are given jobs, responsibility, and salaries far out of proportion to their capacity for judgment and discretion. Self-appraisal, appraisal of reality, expectations from life, all become twisted out of focus. On top of all this, there is great social dislocation: families migrate, parents separate to find work, and what little is left of home life often disintegrates. (6)

The worst of it, however, comes with the inevitable deflation of this new status when the nation settles down to a peacetime economy. For then the frustrations and deprivations formerly regarded as the normal heritage of adolescence become greatly magnified against the relatively "plush" background of the wartime era.

How Socio-economic Factors Actually Retard Rate of Maturation

It is usually taken to be self-evident that socio-economic factors, which make it necessary to prolong adolescence, somehow manage concurrently to

retard the rate of emotional and social maturation. However, the social psychologist is not content with this evasive formulation. He tries to understand the precise nature of the mechanism whereby socio-economic conditions necessitating a prolongation of the transitional period of sub-adulthood become *translated* into an actual process of retardation in the sphere of psychological development. This relationship between social status on the one hand and inner ego-valuation on the other hand is a fundamental problem of ego-psychology.

Every child develops an intrinsic image of his ego-adequacy which is mainly derived from his parents' acceptance or rejection of him for himself. (7, 23) This intrinsic image tends to remain fairly constant regardless of external vicissitudes. (23) What does change, however, with fluctuations in external social status is the child's corresponding *extrinsic* image of his ego-adequacy. This is affected by what parents and teachers say about him, by experiences related to social success and failure, *etc.* During adolescence, this extrinsic image must undergo a change which reflects not only the gain in status implied by closer proximity to adulthood, but also the loss of status achieved by exchanging the stable, established position of childhood for the insecure transitional period of adolescence.

In our society, the adolescent has a very marginal social status; and hence his extrinsic image of ego-adequacy—which is largely a reflection of the former—is correspondingly marginal. Because society considers him to be immature, he feels that he *is* immature, and hence feels no compulsion to develop any faster than society expects him to. Thus, not only does he tend to accept society's evaluation of his maturity at face value, but he also governs his rate of maturation in accordance with the prevailing social "sets" and expectations which relate to this process. In other words, his level of aspiration with respect to the proper rate of maturation generally corresponds to the relative urgency with which society regards this problem. Most adolescents would believe any other course to be virtually impossible, since, like children, they tend to believe that prevailing social arrangements are absolutely given and hence immutable.

The matter of regulating rate of maturation, however, does not end with the adolescent's ego-attitudes. The more direct determinant of the rate of this growth process is the actual experience gained in the enactment of mature roles. One attains adult maturity by living the life of an adult. And whether or not this is possible depends in turn on two factors: (a) the adolescent's inclination to do so, which is, more or less, a reflection of prevailing social expectations; and (b) the actual social and

economic opportunities available, which again, generally speaking, determine social expectations. In this way socio-economic conditions not only set up the adolescent's level of aspiration regarding rate of maturation, but they also govern the availability of the experience required for personality development—by making actual access to it difficult and by making adolescents disinclined to seek it. Thus, as social conditions vary with respect to the urgency for maturation, as in war or depression, so does the rate of maturation (within certain limits, of course). In earlier times when boys and girls were *needed* in the economy formed by "communities of interdependent families," they learned about the world as they worked. Hence they matured faster than modern adolescents "who spend a large part of their time in school where they learn about their world in a highly vicarious fashion." (22) The earlier acquisition of economic independence resulted in more rapid emancipation from the home; and by making early marriage more feasible, facilitated psycho-sexual development.

We are thus forced to agree with Newton Edward's conclusion that many of the most serious problems of adolescents in our society are not really problems of youth as much as they are problems related to the very nature of our social order. (28)

Negative Effects of Status Deprivation

One extreme effect of status deprivation—the development of the predatory adolescent gang—has already been mentioned. Seldom, however, are these effects so drastic, especially in the child who has no pre-adolescent history of delinquency. (17) The most general effect of prolonged status deprivation is the production of a state of chronic frustration and an aggravation of transitional anxiety. As a result, general emotional and behavioral reactivity (irritability, emotional instability) is intensified. Dollard (30) develops the thesis that frustration leads to aggression. While aggression is certainly the most obvious outcome of this state of increased reactivity, it is by no means the only one. Withdrawal, rationalization, excessive undirected activity, depression, anxiety, *etc.*, may all have their day in court depending on the adolescent's personal history and on the precise nature and intensity of the conflict.

The effects of deprivation vary depending on the stage of adolescence. At the onset they may be very intense, until the adolescent finally begins to comprehend that adult status will continue to be withheld for another five or eight years. Once he is reconciled to this fact, he tends to react less acutely until somewhere towards the end when the summation of chronic frustration reaches a high point. Then finally, with the end in

sight, the last lap is navigated more easily. Dollard feels that the aggression and rebelliousness of early adolescence are progressively diminished as the adolescent learns to find substitutive satisfaction for his frustrated sexual and self-assertive drives. (30) He does not commit himself, however, as to whether he believes they are sublimated. Kinsey (19) seriously disputes the possibility of sublimating sexual drives, and Allport denies that sublimation exists at all, insisting on the "functional autonomy of motives."* Nevertheless, the development of new sources of status—even if autonomously derived rather than sublimated—tends to counterbalance the effect of deprivations in other spheres, making for a more favorable net balance of gratifications (or for a reduction in the net total of frustrations).

The manifestations of aggression due to status deprivations are the same familiar reactions previously noted as developing in response to psychological frustrations: exaggerated demands for independence, rejection of the goals of adult maturation, and generalized contempt for established values and for adults; conceit, arrogance, and defiance of authority; a stereotyped hostile attitude towards parents and elders. Not infrequently this aggression finds a pseudo-philosophical outlet in the more introverted youth, expressing itself as a distorted and cynical materialism which denies any possibility of virtue or altruism; as a crass Epicureanism, as nihilism, or (as most recently) in the so-called philosophy of existentialism.**

The various expressions of withdrawal are also manifold. There may only be an exaggerated reserve, a stubborn refusal to discuss problems, or a more serious retreat from all social intercourse. Exaggerated asceticism or intellectualization are not uncommon and are generally rationalized as evidence of superior virtue. The most extreme examples of "escape reactions," are of course, suicide and running away from home. Many early marriages among adolescents are merely desperate attempts to escape from conflicts and frustrations regarded as insoluble and unbearable. (2)

Other adolescents may blusteringly deny that they have any problems or else attempt to pass them off lightly by a disarming third-person reference to same or by an air of swaggering indifference. (6) In other cases, there may be a gross displacement of effect from a genuinely

*Allport, G. W., *Personality, A Psychological Interpretation*, New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937.

**cf. Silverman, H. L., "The Philosophy and Psychology of Existentialism," *The Psychiatric Quarterly Supplement*, 21, 1947, 10-16.

serious concern to a trivial, vastly exaggerated, or even imaginary somatic defect. And finally, periods of seemingly unaccountable anxiety or depression may alternate with furious bursts of undirected and transitory enthusiasm, which die almost as soon as they are born, leaving few concrete traces behind them. The latter is typical of the flightiness and the superficial nature of adolescent emotional involvements, reflecting on the one hand the increased emotional reactivity induced by chronic frustration and, on the other hand, the instability which interferes with the sustained direction and implementation of motivation.

Positive Effects or Status Deprivation: The Adolescent Peer Society

In contrast to these "negative" effects of status deprivation, the peer society may be regarded as having a more positive function; that is, instead of being a more or less unfortunate result of emotional instability, it mainly serves a compensatory role. As the chief source of adolescent interim status, its effect is to reduce the total load of frustration and to stabilize the entire transitional period. This does not in any sense imply that its formation is the product of a sublimative process—that the energy of frustrated drives is directly utilized in this substitutive function. In line with Allport's views, it seems more likely that its origins are independent, and can be traced back to peer groups formed earlier in childhood. Tryon (22) maintains that "in our society it is probably safe to say that wherever children or youth are together for any length of time and free to pursue their own purposes, there will be a subculture operating." In distinguishing the peer groups of childhood from those of adolescence, Goodenough observes that "in most cases, the social groups formed by young children lack the solidarity and the feeling of group-consciousness that characterize the adolescent gang or club." (31)

Although peer attachments are certainly not lacking in pre-adolescents, how are we to explain the greater group-consciousness of the adolescent in the face of his far greater preoccupation with problems of self? It is true that at first glance one might expect the essentially more extroverted pre-adolescent to surrender himself more to group interests. But the child's status is mainly derived from the home; whereas the adolescent, although by any standard the more self-conscious of the two, must forego some of his individuality to gain the group approval which is the main source of his status. It is the very marginality of the adolescent's status which makes him so susceptible to the influence of the peer culture and which provides the source of the latter's power to exact rigid conformity to its standards.

Functions of the Peer Society

Because the needs of youth for status cannot be met or integrated with the functioning of adult society and "because of the lack of adequate situations provided by the established grown-up world which might make [the] status anchorings [of adolescents] possible, the result in many cases is the spontaneous formation of more or less secret cliques and gangs." (2) "It is painful to toss around without some stable anchorage," (2) and, if this condition is to be extended over any length of time, some interim device must be inserted into the vacuum. Being neither children nor adults, to whom else can they turn but to their own group in the hope of re-establishing some sense of order, continuity, and stability in their lives? They "find relief from [this] puzzling, inconsistent and frustrating situation by rebelling against the dictates of adults in their immediate environment, anchoring themselves in an age-mate world. . . [Thus] they progressively turn to the closer company of age-mates in their transition from childhood to adulthood, in their struggle to establish themselves as persons in their own right in an adverse adult-made world in which they are marginal in varying degrees. . . [And] through conformity to the norms of these age-mate groups. . . [they] achieve the immediate status [which sustains them] during these years of transition." (2)

The peer group plays a crucial role in the process of emancipation. It is self-evident that in switching his primary allegiances and in seeking a source of values outside the home, the adolescent is making great strides towards achieving emancipation. He is finding a new source of basic security to supplant the emotional anchorage to parents that had heretofore kept him confined within the dependent walls of childhood. By attributing the prerogatives of judgment, decision, choice, and initiative to a group fashioned in his own image, he is effectively demolishing his exclusive childhood association of these powers with parental figures, and is thus paving the way for eventually assuming them himself. As a result of the emotional support he derives from his peer group, he gains the courage to break the bonds of parental domination.

The peer group also serves as "a bulwark of strength in combatting [adult] authority. . . . By pooling their resistance in groups and throwing up barriers of one kind and another against adult interference," children and adolescents manage to exclude adults and protect themselves from . . . the coercions that [the latter] are prone to use." (22) In this way, it becomes possible to ignore almost completely any protests or objections that adults may have regarding their activities. "The effect of age-mate groups to which the ado-

lescent relates himself may be so strong that [he] may even feel apologetic about the interference of his parents." (2)

Adolescents frequently use the peer group as an organized means of "rejecting . . . the accepted standards of adult society," and of repudiating the necessity for growing up. When this is combined with aggressive retaliation for the hurts of status deprivation, we witness the formation of the predatory delinquent group. But even apart from delinquency, practically all resistance to acculturation in our society comes not from individual adolescents but from peer groups. (22) Tryon points to the "zoot-suit" movement as "an illustration of effective clinging to a sub-adult society. Such groups have their own particular cultural patterns—unique slang language, special costume and dance rituals. These serve the two-fold end of welding the group together and of setting up barriers against the demands and pressures of the adult world, a world which has not, for the most part, welcomed children and youth as an integral part of it." (22)

Tryon (22) emphasizes the importance of the peer society as the major training institution for adolescents in our society. Most adults have a tendency to exalt unduly the role of the school and "to minimize the educational significance of the child's experience in his peer group." (22) Frank (7), on the other hand, sees one of the school's main functions in providing "many of the occasions for adolescent boys and girls to receive the inculcation of adolescent culture—that body of attitudes, of beliefs, and practices which is transmitted not by parents and teachers to children but by older adolescents to younger adolescents."

It is as a training institution that the peer culture helps to accomplish some of the more important tasks of adolescent maturation. "It is in this group that by *doing* they learn about the social processes of our culture. They clarify their sex roles by acting and being responded to, they learn competition, co-operation, social skills, values, and purposes by sharing the common life." (22) And it accomplishes all of this without self-conscious or self-important pomposity; for unlike the adult-controlled training institutions and agencies of our society, the peer group does not regard itself as a training unit." (22) The peer group—in contrast to the official training institutions (school, church, recreational agencies) whose activities are practically discrete and unintegrated, whose offerings of status are confusing, vague, intangible and frequently condescending—"offers the child greater continuity in terms of time and more understanding than he can find in most adult-directed groups. Among his own age-mates, he is continuously regarded as a human being, a total personality," instead of as a sum of un-

related parts, each of which "is regarded as in need of [special compartmentalized] training. . . . It provides satisfactions to the basic urges for security in the warmth of friendship and the sense of adequacy that come from belonging." (22)

Some General Structural Characteristics of Peer Groups

Adolescent peer groups utilize most of the organizational principles characterizing adult societies; "that is, they have group purposes, standards or values, and rules of behavior. . . . Such groups also have methods of securing conformity. . . ." Although "the individuals in any such group may remain constant over a long period of time, many changes [occur] . . . in its objectives . . . its values . . . and its relation to the adult society." (22)

Despite their general similarity to adult groupings, the structural properties of the adolescent peer culture are to a certain extent uniquely derived from the special needs of the youth group and are especially influenced "through imitation of and initiation by members of the next older developmental level." (2) Almost inevitably, further differentiation occurs: small compact "cliques of two, three, or more adolescents emerge on the basis of common secrets, common desires, common problems, common interests such as those based on family background, school activities, and the like." (2) Corresponding to their earlier physiological maturation, such cliques appear earlier in girls than in boys and continue to operate within a more exclusive and secretive atmosphere. (2)

The criteria for establishing relative standing within the peer group depend on many specific attributes having social prestige value. In general, however, "high status [is] the resultant at any particular stage of the needs and purposes of the group, and the particular readiness of some individuals to clarify, to represent, to give concrete expression to these group needs, purposes, and objectives." (22) Since relative status in the group changes, some individuals have to cope with the problem of status deflation, while others must learn to handle successfully the new power that comes with higher status. (22) Surprisingly enough, top leadership may be achieved without the formation of any close friendships, but in such cases the individual does not "weather declining status" as satisfactorily as the leader who simultaneously derives emotional security through one or more intimate relationships.

It is also possible for "some individuals with little status in the group [to survive] fairly well because of one or two close friends." (22) In order for boys to be popular with girls, they must first be popular with boys on

the basis of superior masculine attributes. "But girls who [are] most attractive to boys [can] be liked or disliked or even regarded almost with indifference by their own sex." (22) Zachry (5) points out that the adolescent's level of aspiration—and hence his competitive behavior—is related almost exclusively to standards of success achieved in his own limited circle. Thus superior achievement by one member of the group may constitute a "direct challenge to [the] adequacy" of the others and act as a disruptive influence on intra-group solidarity, the very factor which accounts for the social effectiveness of the peer group.

Conformity and Deviation Within the Peer Culture

The peer culture is able to exact conformity from the individual adolescent because of the latter's marginal status and almost complete dependence on the group for the greater part of the immediate security and anchorage which he is able to achieve during these hectic years of transition. Sherif and Cantril advance the hypotheses. "that the degree of influence of . . . age-mate membership groups varies directly with the degree of psychological weaning from grown-ups and the intensity of adult-youth conflict;" and that the need for conformity to group standards rises in direct proportion to the increasing marginality of the adolescent's status. (2) In his desperate need to gain group approval, "the adolescent [therefore] usually does his best to conform to its standards even at considerable cost to himself." (5)

In this connection, Blos comments, "the approval or disapproval of peers becomes progressively the most influential force motivating adolescent conduct" (25) as the corresponding influence of adult approval and disapproval becomes negligible. "For the adolescent, there can be no stronger argument for having or doing a thing than the fact that 'all the others are doing it.' Nothing is likely to awaken so great an emotional disturbance or cause so much worry as the feeling that he is in some way different from the others. 'Others' in this case means the other members of his own particular group. The boy or girl who differs is made to feel the force of group ostracism unless he has sufficient force of personality to bring the others around to his point of view." (31) Although, "curiously enough, there is the concomitant urge to be unique, to achieve individuality or 'separateness'. . . this is [all kept] within the very narrow frame of the group's pattern. The girl tries, for example, to excel in achieving the ideal appearance." (22) Allegiance to group norms may under certain circumstances (extreme poverty, unusual degree of parent-youth conflicts, racial discrimination, residency in a "delinquency area," etc.) be carried to the

point of participation in certain delinquent activities of which an individual adolescent might personally disapprove. The almost complete adoption of certain fads and fashions within adolescent groups, such as "bobby sox," "boogy-woogy," etc., is evidence of the compelling power of the peer group to regulate the lives of adolescents in rigid conformity to its exacting requirements.

Why does the peer group find it necessary, in the first place, to demand such inflexible conformity from its members? In its efforts to establish a new and distinctive subculture and to evolve a unique set of criteria for the determination of status and prestige, the peer society must do everything in its power to set itself off as recognizably distinct and separate from the adult society which refuses it membership. Furthermore, to make a show of how little it cares about this rejection, to express its exaggerated need for independence, and its aggressive reaction to status deprivation, the peer society takes provocative delight in fashioning norms of behavior which are shocking to adult sensibilities.

Thus, in fulfillment of both these aims, we witness the evolution of innumerable esoteric and unique institutions, such as "bobby sox," sweaters, and "boogie-woogie," and the deliberately premature advocacy of certain external prerogatives of adulthood such as late hours, smoking, automobiles, fur coats, make-up, drinking, etc. If this distinctiveness is to be actually attained in fact, it cannot admit the possibility of nonconformity; since, obviously, if every adolescent were permitted to exercise his newly acquired craving for individuality, an unrecognizable medley of behavior patterns would ensue. Under such conditions, there would be no peer culture, and hence no compensatory source of interim status. Also, without the group solidarity which depends on absolute conformity, there could be no organized basis of resistance to the encroachments of adult authority and no basis of appeal to an existing standard of adolescent behavior. Johnny would not be able to say, "I want to stay out until midnight on Saturdays. *All the other boys do.*" *The principle of group conformity, therefore, is a self-protective device which arises from the need of the peer culture to establish and maintain its identity as the chief adolescent status-giving institution in our society;* and he who dares to defy its authority and, thereby, expose the group to possible extinction, becomes an arch criminal, an enemy of peer society, worthy of receiving the supreme penalty in its arsenal of retribution—complete and unequivocal ostracism.

In this atmosphere of group conformity for the sake of survival, the deviant, for whatever cause, is placed at a terrible disadvantage in the strug-

gle to emerge mature and adjusted at the conclusion of adolescence. If he did not learn the give-and-take techniques of childhood play, he will fall even further behind during adolescence. If he is shy, inhibited, and fearful of "letting go" in a group situation, he steadily veers to the periphery of the peer group. If he is excessively introspective, artistic, or intellectual, he establishes himself as a "queer" with a permanently assigned low prestige rating, fit only for the company of other outcasts and deviants. Introverts fare especially badly since they find it difficult and painful to submit to group standards and practices with spontaneity and abandon. Before long they acquire the reputation of being "wet blankets." The merciless law of the group is also applied to the unfortunate somatic deviants—the fat, the awkward, the oversized, the puny, the late maturers. In varying degrees, all of these deviants face social ridicule, abuse, and isolation.

What is their subsequent fate? The fortunate ones achieve some measure of status and security by forming warm attachments to age-mates of their own kind. Rarely a sympathetic and understanding adult friend or teacher will offer them affection, direction, and encouragement. But, more often, they are left to flounder uncertainly, to drift farther and farther away from group living, to develop feelings of anxiety and inferiority, to withdraw deeper and deeper into themselves or into a compensatory world of unreality. The more seriously maladjusted may be claimed by suicide or schizophrenia. But with the coming of adulthood, release comes for the majority of deviants. The recession of the demand for slavish conformity is one of the surest signs of approaching adulthood. (2, 22) Variability is then not only legalized, but, to a certain extent, also becomes desirable. Adolescents suddenly begin to notice the personal qualities of people. They evolve personal goals, personal tastes, personal interests, and personal preferences. The "hideous" deviant is then, for the first time, seen for what he really is—as just *another* different human being. And after years of harrowing isolation, he dares again to lift his head and take his rightful place among his peers.

Other Quests for Status

Status deprivation may and frequently does arouse idealistic conceptions in adolescents who become concerned with social problems. As Frank (13) states "They may during this period of adjustment to adult life . . . project ahead some more or less clearly conceived ideals of self and also of society. In these hopes, expectations, and anxieties of the adolescent period and, more specifically, in the image that each individual forms for himself and the aspiration he cherishes for human welfare, may be found a strategic means for social change."

A very common status-seeking activity of adolescents is the attempt to identify themselves emotionally with the roles of glamorous individuals in public life. Thus, adolescent boys may become completely immersed in the minutest details of the lives and exploits of their heroes in the world of sports; while adolescent girls more frequently preoccupy themselves with the doings of movie and radio personalities. Through this very intense and intimate process of identification, a certain amount of reflected status is achieved. The same mechanism is involved in the "crushes" which adolescents "get" on idolized persons in their immediate environment, such as teachers or highly regarded age-mates, usually of the same sex.

In certain individuals, extreme status-deprivation ignites a burning ambition to rise above the limitations imposed by their environment, and sometimes, in exceptional cases, enough drive is generated in this manner to enable the individual to lift himself by his own bootstraps to levels of achievement which would ordinarily be thought impossible under the given handicaps. In contrast to the one who succeeds, however, hundreds make the attempt only to become discouraged and drop out along the way.

The Differentiation of Class Roles

The recent teachings of sociologists,* who have made long-range, longitudinal, *in situ* studies of institutions, customs, and attitudes, make clear that, in our society, there is no such thing as a uniform social environment determining in the same way the growth possibilities of the transitional period for all adolescents. It seems rather that "the conditions under which persons have access to fundamental biological and social goals are defined by a system of privilege . . . a system of socially ranked groups with varying degrees of social movement existing between them." (27) As Allison Davis points out, there are three systems of social rank in the United States based on socio-economic, ethnic, and color considerations; and "such status differentiations as these have the effect of defining and limiting the developmental environment of the child." (27) All of this becomes perfectly self-evident if we but pause to reflect that the differences between the social developmental pressure operating on the son of a New England banker and those affecting a Southern Negro sharecropper's son must be nearly as great as those which separate the latter from an adolescent in Samoa. "Within each of these participation levels with their cultural environments, a child learns characteristic behavior and values concerning family members, sexual and aggressive acts, work, education, and a career. . . . These restricted learning environments are maintained by powerful and firmly established taboos upon

* Typical of such studies are the Lynds' *Middletown in Transition*, 1937; and Davis, A., and Dollard, J., *Children of Bondage*, 1940.

participation outside of one's status level . . . [by pressures] exerted not only by those above . . . but also by persons below . . . and by those" in one's particular class. (27)

We may now examine a few examples of the different ways in which class status helps to differentiate the goals, attitudes, and behavior of the developing adolescent. Economic necessity may force emancipation relatively early on a working-class adolescent; on the other hand, wealth and education may prolong the period of dependency in an upper-class youth. Yet, while the former may have to seek economic independence earlier, he is in no way sure of attaining his goal; whereas the latter *knows* that, even if delayed longer, assured economic status will eventually be his. The position of the middle-class youth is somewhere in between; success is not assured in advance. He has to fight and struggle for it; but the greater chances of succeeding give him more incentive to strive than his lower-class contemporary. He is, thus, more highly motivated, and his behavior is more persistently oriented towards the goal of achievement than that of either of the status levels directly above and below him. (27) In addition, each class must bear its characteristic time sequence and total load of status deprivation. Total load varies inversely with height of class standing; whereas the order in which periods of low and high load tend to follow each other is more likely to be in ascending order for the lower group and in descending order for the higher group.

There are also differences in the type of goals sought and in the approved manner of competing for them. In one group, direct physical attack is the preferred method; in the other, aggression is more polite and indirect, covered by a veneer of disarming amiability. As is to be expected, there are marked differences in the urgency with which adolescents of different class origin view the importance of preserving the *status quo*.

Sherif and Cantril (2), therefore, emphasize the importance of understanding adolescent rebellion within a framework of class reference and affiliation. They state: "No matter how serious the youthful rebellion and restlessness may be, adult-youth conflict will in most cases be an intra-family and intra-community affair. . . . An adolescent boy was strongly and at times openly critical of everything his parents did. Nevertheless, he shared the major class delineations, political views, and social-distance norms of his upper middle-class parents." (2) "The basis of the social clique [hence] is equality of the members in social status and similarity in culture." (27) Thus, a girl at the Junior League level learns to treat girls of her own class with a certain easy familiarity, while maintaining a discreet distance from

girls of lower class levels. (2) This feeling is strong enough sometimes even to be applied to relatives of different social status. And not only is membership in a social clique limited to individuals of equivalent social levels, but also are "crushes" and identifications. Where this unwritten rule of social intercourse is violated, serious maladjustments almost inevitably arise because of the ensuing family discord. (2)

It, therefore, becomes a matter of importance to the social psychologist to inquire into the mechanisms whereby class differences in social behavior, attitudes, and motivations are maintained and reinforced despite the difficulties of transmitting them to the younger generation during the rebellious era of adolescence. For one thing, as Ogden (2) points out, "Society sets today have more or less institutionalized the atmosphere in which their children are brought to adolescence through the private boarding school. [Thus] 'the homogeneous character of the student body is conducive to the development of a class sense of cohesion'" (2) Intermingling of different classes is further discouraged by factors of distance (neighborhood), clothes, parental pressure, etc. But even more important are feelings of class loyalty which are strongly developed by the time a child reaches adolescence. After years of subtle indoctrination along class lines, the adolescent seldom needs any coaching when it comes to the organization of his peer group.

The reinforcement of class levels of aspiration and motivation is a slightly more difficult matter. Allison Davis advances the hypothesis that "effective [class] socialization in our society" is achieved by the maintenance [in] the individual of a certain level of *anxiety* with regard to the attainment of the required behavior for his status. "This *socialized anxiety* plays a major role in propelling him along that cultural route prescribed by his family, school, and later by adult society at his cultural level. . . . [It] is derived from a long and complex series of training situations in which punishment has been invoked. . . . The anxiety which middle-status people learn is effective first because it involves the threat of loss of present status [and the severe social penalties associated therewith], and second, because it leads as the individual may plainly see in 'successful persons' to the rewards of power, of social prestige, and of security for one's children. . . . Anxiety leads to striving because only thus can anxiety be reduced to a tolerable level." (27)

But how is this "socially adaptive anxiety" transmitted to adolescents when they become so indifferent to the standards and values of their parents? From whence comes the authority which is derived from threat and fear of punishment to make the anxiety real enough to keep the adolescent's striv-

ings fixed at his own class level? Since the parents become so ineffective in wielding this authority at adolescence, it is *transferred by default to the peer society*. And with the power of social ostracism at its disposal, it sees to it that the values, associations, aspirations, and behavior patterns of its members adhere closely to the class reference group to which it owes allegiance.

The Adolescent in a Changing Social Order

It is in a changing social order that the adolescent meets his supreme test in the biosocial problem of adjusting to the developmental needs of his own growth process. By being in a state of transition, instability, and status marginality themselves, adolescents, more than any other segment of the population, are bound to suffer from the confusions and anxieties inherent in a period of social transition. In fact, it is precisely these doubts and perplexities springing from the rapidity of social change which are in large measure responsible for the difficulties and for the prolongation of adolescence in our society. Not only must adolescents face conflicting and often contradictory social norms, but they must also wrestle with the inconsistencies in treatment and in expectations from adults that follow inevitably from these contradictory social standards.

In our culture, it is the effects of technology that have wrought this social instability and confusion. (28) Although there has been little hesitation about accepting and using the new products of technology, there has been no corresponding willingness on the part of society to reorganize social institutions and to reorient value systems in accordance with the changed modes of living resulting from technological advances. (28) This "cultural lag" has resulted in an unusual amount of moral confusion, making "progressively less effective . . . the historic carriers of the core values of society—family, church, and community." Even a benign by-product of technology such as leisure has created a new and baffling problem for modern adolescent youth. "Inability to cope with this problem has increased the frustration of youth; or at least it has not relieved the frustration caused by technology." (28)

The greatest developmental problem posed by technology has been the confusion in standards which it has created, standards of proper goals and methods of achieving them, standards of moral behavior and standards relevant to appropriate class and sex roles. All of this makes the problem of finding anchorage even more difficult. The floundering adolescent wants something definite and tangible to grasp, something more than vague and ephemeral promises of adult status. But, when he finally emerges from the sheltered areas of childhood, sudden exposure to the realities of life destroys

his romantic and idealized conceptions of marriage, industry, and government. His is the lot of disenchantment which may lead to a cynical acceptance of the very worst in his culture or to a "burning ambition to remake the world." (7) He had been taught the virtues of humility, forthrightness, and honesty. Yet, all around him he sees the worldly triumph of dissimulation and aggressiveness. He had been led to believe that merit and virtue are inevitably rewarded with all the good things of life; but, in the actual struggle for position, he finds little chance of "climbing the ladder of success" except through favoritism, shrewd dealing, and inherited wealth and status. Under these circumstances, what is he to do? Shall he hunt with the hounds or run with the hares? "Shall youth be taught to lower their level of expectation, to abandon the ideal of social mobility for social adjustment? Are they to be encouraged to hold fast to the old ideal of social mobility even though most of them will experience failure in its realization? Or will they be encouraged to set their hands to the long and arduous task of so modifying the economy as to make possible the older ideal of equal opportunity in a mobile society?" (28) It is unambiguous answers to these questions which modern youth seeks in its quest for status. And no mental hygienist worth his salt can afford to evade them. (28)

Ruth Benedict (34) has called attention to the various types of "discontinuity" in our culture which help to make adolescence such a long and painful process. Children no longer achieve adult status following the attainment of certain well-defined attributes of physical or sexual growth, or after proving that they possess certain vocational and physical skills; and society has done away with the rituals and ceremonies which primitive peoples use to mark the accomplishment of various developmental tasks with their concomitant acquisition of more adult privileges and responsibilities. These "rites of passage" formerly gave a certain definiteness and continuity to the business of growing up and becoming adult. Adolescents knew just what was expected of them at each stage of development; and, after achieving the expected tasks, they were clearly and ceremoniously rewarded with the prerogatives of adulthood. Now, they are not only confused about the goals of maturation at any particular stage of the game, but also never seem to know what is coming next since the sequence of developmental steps is vague and ambiguous and is subject to frequent change and even to individual preference. Deprived of the ceremonies and rituals, adolescents are always left wondering and unassured about what has already been accomplished and what has yet to be done. Also, as Tryon has pointed out, there is another "kind of discontinuity in the lives of children and groups of children; name-

ly, the one caused by the discreteness, the noninter-relatedness of the various institutions and agencies that deal with the child or the group during any one day." (the five or six different teachers, the parents, the church, the peer group, and the recreational agency.) (22) All pursue their own aims and methods separately and independently of the others; and the child is left to reconcile their contradictions, to choose from among them, to take sides, and, hence, to provoke conflict and discord.

The complete separation of the value and interest systems of child and adult in our culture makes for still another type of discontinuity adding to the difficulty of adolescence. Our children—unlike those in many primitive societies—are given no responsibilities in the work-a-day world of adult concern, and, hence, evolve a discrete set of prestige-giving values of their own. At adolescence, therefore, when identification with adult values becomes necessary, there is no continuity in goal seeking. The values and status of the child world must be scrapped in entirety, and the struggle for social recognition begun again from anew. But this is not all. The adolescent, rejected by the adult world he seeks to enter, must temporarily hold in abeyance and even reject these new value-identifications for those revered in the adolescent peer society. Here he starts once more at the bottom rung of the ladder; and when, towards the close of adolescence, he reaches the top, he is sent hurtling down to the bottom again as a fledgling adult to start climbing yet another ladder of values.

IV. PSYCHOPHYSICAL ASPECTS OF ADOLESCENT SEXUALITY

Varieties of Sexual Expression

Before Kinsey and his co-workers completed their studies on the sex life of the American male (19), very little precise information was available about this important aspect of adolescent behavior. Most of the previous studies were neither exhaustive enough in their inquiries, nor did they sample large or representative enough segments of our population to stand careful scrutiny.* Because Kinsey's work in the field of female sexual behavior is still unpublished, this discussion will be offered only on a tentative basis.

It is against the background of the general social attitude towards sexuality which prevails in our culture that the psychosexual development of the child takes place. The entire subject of sexual expression in our society is surrounded with so many taboos, prohibitions, and moral strictures that

* Kinsey's data has been subjected to statistical attack on the grounds that it is not adequately representative of the lower educational levels. It has also been suggested that the median rather than the mean would be a more valid measure of sexual output because of the inclusion in the data of high outputs conceivably due to compulsive sexuality. Nevertheless, this study remains the most representative and exhaustive performed to date.

the sexual urge is regarded as an inherently evil and reprehensible drive which is tolerated only because it is necessary for the reproduction of the species. In the case of the male, a concession is made to the acknowledged strength of the sexual urge in that its existence is given a certain recognized status, but, nevertheless, it is *formally* expected that repression will be practiced until marriage. In the case of the female, *physiological* sex drive is presumed to be nonexistent and sexual expression is regarded as permissible only as part of her affectional duties as a wife. Since most parents take the view that sex must be denied, and not even discussed, it is hardly surprising that children and adolescents have such distorted attitudes towards sexuality—attitudes that combine all the elements of shame, disgust, fear, guilt, mystery, and anxiety. (7) The unrealistic avoidance and deprecation of the subject of sex in the face of the child's *positive knowledge* of its actual importance leads to one of two results. In boys, probably because of society's more tolerant attitude towards male interest in matters of sex, there is a vast overevaluation of the importance of sexuality which reveals itself in surreptitious sexual practices and in a pre-occupation with smut and "dirty" stories. Whereas, girls—bowing to the prevailing cultural attitude regarding the absence of physical sex drive in women—are more generally able to banish sex-consciousness, to stifle their physiological urges, and to accept at face value the polite, social implication that sexual gratification may be important—but to men only.

It is, therefore, against this general cultural background of distortion and repression of the sexual functions that boys and girls are catapulted by hormonal changes into the problems of adolescent sexual adjustment. And the wonder is that they fare no worse than they do. Having had no previous experience in controlling powerful sex drives with their concomitant emotional overtones, they face the same initial bewilderment and uneasiness that confront maturing boys and girls in any culture. But the abnormally slow pace of emotional and social maturation causes psychosexual development to lag far behind, especially in girls. Thus, boys and girls are generally incapable at sixteen or eighteen of the deep emotional involvement necessary for real love relationships. (2) Both sexes reveal extreme flightiness, superficiality, and indiscriminateness in their heterosexual activities. But while, in boys, physiological sex expression becomes part of the more general social conception of masculinity, in girls, the physiological component is repressed; and the mere fact of popularity with boys—divorced of its biological sex implications—becomes their main source of social prestige. A sixteen-year-old girl is chiefly interested in the social standing which is derived from "going steady" with her eighteen year old boy-friend, and thus may "tolerate" his sexual attentions

which she might regard indifferently or even with repugnance. To the latter, however, the matter of sexual gratification is by no means incidental, but is just as important as the prestige-value of the conquest.

Although some writers (18) claim that adolescence only marks a continuation of childhood problems relating to the expression and control of sex urges, Kinsey's data indicates that there is a complete break in the *quality* if not in the time sequence of pre-adolescent and adolescent sexual activity. Whereas, in the former, it is "more or less a part of his other play . . . and usually sporadic;" in the latter, it becomes "an end in itself . . . frequent and regular soon after the onset of adolescence." (19) "In a fair number of cases," social repression results in no pre-adolescent sex activity whatsoever; and, in at least half of the cases where there is a history of activity, "pre-adolescent play ends well before or with the onset of adolescence, and more adult sexual activities must start from new points, newly won social acquirements, newly learned techniques of physical contact. In many cases, the newly adolescent boy's capacity to ejaculate, his newly acquired physical characteristics of other sorts do something to him which brings child play to an end and leaves him awkward about further sexual contacts." (19)

By the age of fifteen, ninety-two per cent of all males have their first orgasm, two-thirds of them through masturbation, one-eighth through heterosexual coitus, and five per cent through homosexual contact. (19) "After the initial experience in ejaculation, practically all males become regular in their sexual activity. This involves monthly, weekly, or even daily ejaculation . . . ninety-nine per cent of the boys begin regular sexual lives *immediately* after the first ejaculation." (19) Kinsey also found that boys who mature earlier start regular activity *more* immediately than the late-maturing boys, and not only have twice as much total outlet per week as the latter during the teen years, but also maintain the higher rate throughout the remainder of their active sex lives. (19) The period of maximal sexual outlet occurs around sixteen or seventeen years, the mean frequency of outlet reaching 3.4 per week. In regard to the social significance of this fact, Kinsey has this to say: "The identification of the sexually most active period at late adolescence will come as a surprise to most persons. By law, society provides a source of regular sexual outlet in marriage, in part because it recognizes the sexual need of the older male; but it fails to recognize that teen-age boys are potentially more capable and often more active than their thirty-five-year-old fathers. The problem of sexual adjustment for the younger male is one which became especially aggravated during the last one hundred years, and then primarily in England and in America under an increasing moral suppression which has coincided with an increasing delay in age of marriage. This has resulted in

an intensification of the struggle between the boy's biological capacity and the sanctions imposed by the older male. . . The fact that the unmarried male still manages to find an outlet of 3.4 per week demonstrates the failure of the attempt to impose complete abstinence upon him. . . Masturbation is a more frequent outlet among the upper social level males where during the last two or three decades it has been allowed as a not too immoral substitute for pre-marital intercourse, but most of the less-educated eighty-five per cent of the population still consider masturbation neither normal nor moral. For the mass of the unmarried boys, intercourse still provides the chief sexual activity. This means that the majority of the males in the sexually most potent and active periods of their lives have to accept clandestine or illegal outlets or become involved in psychologic conflicts in attempting to adjust to reduced outlets." (19)

The Class Differentiation of Sexual Behavior—Perhaps the chief interest of Kinsey's data lies in its unequivocal demonstration that sexual attitudes and behavior differ widely but consistently among the various socio-economic and educational levels of our country. Among the lower levels, adolescent sex activity is more frequently a continuation of pre-adolescent sex play; and the source of first ejaculation is less uncommonly through coitus than is the case among upper-level boys. "By the age of fifteen, the active incidence (of premarital coitus) includes nearly half of the lower educational groups but only ten per cent of the boys who will ultimately go to college." (19) Masturbation is much more common among the latter, as already mentioned, and so is "petting," because both are substitutive outlets for coitus which is regarded as morally taboo on a premarital basis. "In the upper level code of sexual morality, there is nothing so important as the preservation of the female, and to a somewhat lesser degree, the similar preservation of the virginity of the male. . . . The lower educational levels see no sense in this. They have nothing like this strong taboo against premarital intercourse, and, on the contrary, accept it as natural and inevitable and as a desirable thing. Lower level taboos are more often turned against an avoidance of intercourse and against any substitution for simple and direct coitus [e.g., masturbation, petting]." (19)

How is this class consistency in sexual behavior maintained throughout the difficult rebellious period of adolescence? On first thought, one might imagine that the upper-level adolescent would just relish the opportunity of defying the rigid sex mores advocated by his parents. Wouldn't this be the precise area in which he could shock most effectively? But actually, although he does revolt partly against the sex deprivations to which he is subjected,

he nevertheless incorporates so many of the standards of his class that he is still closer by far to the sex norms of his repressive parents than to those of his contemporary comrades in rebellion amongst the lower-level groups. For example, Cameron*, in his study of junior high-school pupils, observed that, although boys and girls referred in daring terms to their sexual exploits in order to enhance their news value, "anyone who *really* became interested in heavy petting was ostracized from the group." Thus, it is the peer group again which—by providing a new and more acceptable source of authority for the enforcement of class norms—insures their continuity without interfering with the task of self-assertion and liberation from parental domination.

But what about the pressures working *within* the individual which once set in motion seem almost capable of perpetuating that behavior indefinitely, almost independently of external coercion? In our society, for example, the lower level male differentiates sharply between psychophysiological** and psycho-affective sex needs, and prior to marriage openly admits that at times he satisfies each independently of the other. The upper-level male acknowledges that his psychophysiological sex desires exist, but feels that they ought to be repressed for moral reasons. The latter being too difficult, he compromises by first restricting himself to auto-erotic practices. But then, finding even this outlet insufficient, he discovers in petting a "socio-sexual outlet" that still enables him to keep intact his own virginity and that of his female partner. He deludes himself into believing that, as long as he refrains from intra-vaginal intercourse, he is repressing the major portion of psychophysiological immorality. Petting thus becomes a substitute for tabooed intercourse, and not only does a powerful inhibition develop against the latter, but also all heterosexual orgasm experience becomes *conditioned* upon prior petting. It is, therefore, not surprising that, when such an individual becomes married and the opportunity for intercourse is no longer restricted, petting still persists as pre-coital play. (19) On the other hand, the inhibitions in relation to nonmarital intercourse perpetuate themselves by creating through continued lack of experience, an actual incapacity for finding opportunities for same. In direct contrast, the lower-level male who has no inhibitions about premarital intercourse is amazingly successful in finding opportunities for it among girls of his own age group. And never having any substitutive need for petting, he looks down upon it as a perverted indirect means of obtaining sexual gratification, indulging infrequently in it both before and during marriage.

* Cited by Sherif and Cantril (2)

** Sex desires which exist apart from a specific affectional object. These are partly hormonal in origin, but also partly psychic since they persist in males castrated after the onset of pubescence. These urges may be contrasted to the psychoaffective sex needs.

Sex Differences in Sexual Expression—Preliminary data from Kinsey's studies confirm a long-standing impression that there are many basic differences between male and female expressions of sexuality in our culture. Willoughby (32), for example, found that masturbation in adolescence was at least twice as common among boys as among girls. Girls discuss sex less frequently than boys, indulge less in "dirty" jokes and "gutter parlance," are more modest about undressing among themselves, and generally assume much less initiative in heterosexual relationships. Kinsey found that, although ninety-two per cent of all males experience orgasm by the age of fifteen, fewer than a *quarter* of the females do so; "and the female population is twenty-nine years old before it includes as high a percentage of experienced individuals as is to be found in the male curve at fifteen." (19) In striking contrast to males, "there are many women who go for periods of time ranging from a year to ten or twenty years between their earlier experiences and the subsequent adoption of regularity in activity. . . The average adolescent girl gets along well enough with a fifth as much sexual activity as the adolescent boy; and the frequency of outlet in the female in her twenties and early thirties is still below that of the average adolescent male. . . Most of the action in a petting relationship originates with the male. Most of it is designed to stimulate the female." (19) With respect to the total sexual outlet, "there is even a wider range of variation . . . although a larger number of the females are in the lower portion of the curve." (19)

Before these differences in sexual expression can be properly evaluated, more data will be needed. We will want to know how the total outlet of adult women compares with that of adult men; whether class differences* prevail in the sexual activities of females as they do in the case of males; whether adult women have more psychophysiological sex drive than adolescent girls. However, on the basis of what ethnological data we do have, it seems reasonable to conclude that existing differences in psychosexual development between men and women in our culture are not biologically determined. Rather, it seems more likely that these differences are culturally-conditioned—that girls are more successful in repressing psychophysiological sex urges because they are subjected to greater family and social pressures in this respect and are, therefore, more or less able to accept the view that psychoaffectional sex activity is the only appropriate and desirable goal of female sexual behavior. Hence, it seems proper that it should be the female who needs to be stimulated to sexual activity; all marriage manuals say so. It is

* In this section girls are referred to as a group in contrast to boys. When more data is available, they will probably reveal that girls also show striking class differences but in general are closer than boys to the psychoaffectional goal of sexual expression.

considered natural that girls should reject the sexual advances of boys for whom they have no affection; but let a boy do likewise, and he is dubbed a dolt and a fool. Since psychophysiological sex drives presumably are absent in her case, a girl who acts as if this were not so is considered to be "as bad as a man that way." Hence her sexual indiscretions cannot be forgiven; whereas, with boys the legitimacy of premarital intercourse, although formally interdicted, is almost taken for granted at the lower educational level, and forgivable if it occurs at the upper level.

This hypothesis—concurrent in by most social anthropologists—is supported by considerable ethnological data. Among the Mundugumors, for example, "the love affairs of the young married couple are sudden and highly charged, characterized by passion rather than by tenderness or romance. A few hastily whispered words, a tryst muttered as they pass on a trail, are often the only interchange between them after they have chosen each other and before that choice is expressed in intercourse. Before she marries, a girl may have a number of affairs, each characterized by the same quick violence." Despite the "premium placed upon virginity," girls are positively and aggressively sexed, usually taking the initiative in planning the bush liaison. (33) In Mundugumor society, although virginity is valued as a social-property asset in marriage, no distinction is made between the psychophysiological sex drives of men and women. The attitude of the Manus tribe toward sexuality, on the other hand, is very similar to ours. "Sex is conceived of as something bad, inherently shameful, something to be relegated to the darkness of the night." (33) Having no ties of affection to their husbands—marriage being a purely business proposition—women loathe intercourse, welcoming "children because it gives their husbands a new interest and diverts their unwelcome attention from themselves." While women develop neither psychophysiological or psychoaffectional sex drives, men still reserve the former for themselves, and "rape, the swift and sudden capture of an unwilling victim, is still the men's ideal." (33) A completely different situation prevails among the Arapesh. Because of long years "during which husband and wife live together like brother and sister . . . actual sex-intercourse does not spring from a different order of feeling from the affection that one has for one's daughter or one's sister. It is simply a more final and complete expression of the same kind of feeling. And *it is not regarded as a spontaneous response of the human being to an internal sexual stimulus.*"* The Arapesh have no fear that children left to themselves will copulate, or that young people going about in adolescent groups will

* Author's *Italics*.

experiment with sex. The only young people who are believed likely to indulge in any overt sex expression are 'husband and wife,' the betrothed pair who have been reared in the knowledge that they are to be mates." (33) Here we have conclusive proof that psychophysiological sex urges can be successfully repressed in both men and women and that it is possible to convert sex into a psychoaffective function.

Since girls in our culture tend more to grow up with a single—psychoaffective—goal of sex activity, while boys, depending on class affiliation, adhere in varying degrees to a double standard, it is not at all surprising that psychosexual development is slower in the former. In the first place, it requires greater emotional maturity, growing gradually with depth of affectional attachments. This type of sexual expression also—as the Rankians* remind us—involves considerable surrender of self to the other loved person, whereas psychophysiological activities may be freely entered into without any implication of self-surrender. Sexual promiscuity which achieves the latter goal is thus not too far removed from asceticism which may also have the same end in view. (17) The difference may be solely in terms of the inhibitions surrounding the urge for physiological gratification. Secondly, in many women, the idea of sex may be associated with such odium and repugnance that even in connection with affectional purposes there are strong inhibitions which may or may not be overcome slowly in the course of a happy marital relationship. The latter is more likely to be true in the case of girls who are shocked by sexual experiences for which they are emotionally unprepared. But it is not uncommon that many women reach an ascending peak of sexual interest and activity in their late thirties at a time when the sex drive of their husbands is flagging. This could be ascribed either to a flowering of the psychoaffective sex needs at this time, or to a release from psychophysiological repression, resulting in greater overt activity despite the probable reduction in physiological capacity.

Effects of Repression. Sublimation—In our brief review of psychosexual development in different types of cultures, we have seen that the entire question of sexual repression can only be understood in terms of the social norms established for the expression of both psychophysiological and psychoaffective sex needs for both men and women. In re-examining these data and in comparing them to Kinsey's findings (19), it may be hypothesized that either drive can be completely and successfully repressed depending on prevailing cultural attitudes. Psychological conflict originating in sexual repression is not striking either in extreme Puritanically minded Anglo-Saxon

* For a discussion of the Rankian viewpoint in adolescence see Phyllis Blanchard (17)

girls or in Manus girls where both psychosexual components remain unexpressed, or among Arapesh boys and girls, in whom the psychophysiological drive is successfully inhibited. Similarly, in Samoa where psychophysiological urges are given free rein (although psychoaffectional relationships are poorly developed) little mental conflict about sex exists. In all of these instances, the implications of the cultural and social attitudes are not only clear and unequivocal, but also are genuinely accepted by the adolescent at their face value. Conflicts relating to repression first arise when a given psychosexual drive is acknowledged to exist, but no social provisions are made for its legitimate gratification. But even then they can be minimized if clandestine opportunities are available, and society is not too harsh in enforcing its formal code of sex ethics. This situation prevails among the Mundugumors* (33) and among the lower educational levels of American males. (19) The most serious source of conflict arises from the inconsistent social situation *where doubt exists as to the moral legitimacy of psychophysiological sex feelings*. In middle and upper level American males, such confusion does prevail. The existence of these strong urges is partially acknowledged, but at the same time it is *seriously expected* that they are to be repressed until marriage. And the worst of it all is that society refuses to admit that there is any incompatibility involved in this position. In this respect many upper-level girls have it much easier. They don't have to grapple with the problem of how a strong biological urge can exist and still be repressed at the same time. Theirs is not the difficult task of reconciling the idea of moral guilt—associated with the violation of any urge that needs to be repressed—with the seemingly overpowering strength of a natural biological impulse. They don't face the temptation that if they transgress only occasionally—especially if they are not caught—they can probably “get away with it.” Instead, the matter is settled very simply for them; they are told, and usually accept the fact, that they simply do not have these urges. Thus, there is no further problem of repression because in many cases pre-adolescent indoctrination is so successful that for all practical purposes functional extinction of psychophysiological sex drive is achieved.

Who suffers most and who suffers least in our society as a result of sex repression? Obviously, boys of the lower educational levels and girls brought up in the traditionally Victorian or orthodox religious environment suffer least deprivation, conflict, and tension with respect to this particular aspect of adolescent development. Whereas, upper- and middle-level boys are the chief victims of this inconsistency in social attitudes towards sexual expression. But

* It should be noted that in this case early marriage also makes this situation more tolerable.

times are changing for girls. As a result of recent trends in sex education, girls are beginning to wonder if they too are endowed with physiological sex urges. And as they wonder, they are forced to wrestle with the moral problems of repression. In any case, there is considerable overlapping. The late-maturing boy suffers less than the early-maturing boy since he has less need for sexual outlet. (19) The girl with irrepressible physiological needs must face considerable conflict because of society's harsh views regarding aggressive sex behavior in females. In this connection, we may note that "Sub-Deb" clubs help to facilitate the modern trend towards increasing sexual aggressiveness among upper level girls. As a *Life Magazine** survey indicated, "single girls might be shy about asking boys to parties, but clubs of girls can be downright aggressive."

In considering the effects of sexual repression on the girl, however, it is necessary to consider more than the immediate adolescent conflict or relative absence of conflict. For, in having to make a subsequent marital adjustment, she will have to harmonize her own feelings and attitudes with their less inhibited correlates in her husband. "The failure of the female to participate with the abandon which is necessary for the successful consummation of any sexual relation" is listed by Kinsey as one of the two most important "sexual factors which most often cause difficulty in the upper-level marriage." (19) The other factor mentioned by Kinsey is "the failure of the male to show skill on sexual approach and technique" which again is directly attributable to the effect of sex inhibitions. (19)

Masturbation (especially at the upper social levels) is the most important single consequence of the need for sexual repression in males. Although it seems quite clear now that the only harmful effects of masturbation are the feelings of guilt and anxiety associated with the practice, it is necessary to face the implications of the fact that masturbation represents an escape from normal heterosexual reality. (19) Kinsey's data also indicate that transitory "social" homosexuality—as a consequence of heightened sexual tension—is much more widespread than is commonly believed—involving during early adolescence as many as thirty-two per cent of all single males of the high-school educational level. Not to be ignored either are the exaggerated defenses which some adolescents erect against their sexual impulses. This may result in asceticism or in an over-intellectualization of all the emotional problems of living. It is possible to explain, in such a fashion, some cases of adolescent preoccupation with philosophical, social, and political problems.

The Freudian doctrine of sublimation—one of the main shibboleths of psychoanalytical dogma incorporated into the body of modern psychiatric

* Cited by Sherif and Cantril (2).

thinking—is also called into account by Kinsey's findings, thus lending the weight of statistical support to Allport's previous objections on theoretical grounds. In analyzing various cases of low sexual outlet in men, in an effort to find some evidence of sublimation, Kinsey was able to account satisfactorily for the low activity on the basis of other more demonstrable factors. These conditions included general apathy and incapacity to respond to sexual stimuli, lack of sexual awakening, absence of erotic stimuli in the environment of men suddenly deprived of opportunity for outlet, and generalized timidity. (19) He, therefore, concludes that the doctrine of sublimation—which implies that sexual energy can be successfully converted into nonsexual activity so that no nervous disturbance attributable to abstinence results—is little more than a modern psychological myth.*

The literary and artistic productions of adolescents—which so often reflect current personality conflicts (17)—have frequently been cited as evidence of sublimation. It has been held that these productions represent “attempts to work through these conflicts and [to] master emotional drives.” (17) In the light of Kinsey's data, the more likely explanation is that increased emotionality—independent of the fact of repression—is apt to stimulate artistic efforts which portray (as in the case of much artistic expression) those conflicts of greatest current significance in the personal life of the artist.

Differentiation of Masculine and Feminine Sex Roles

In tracing the development of masculine and feminine sex roles, it is again necessary to place this process in a particular social setting. Otherwise, we run the risk of presupposing that the concepts of masculinity and femininity which prevail in our culture are the only ones which are natural and possible in human society. Actually, “Norms regarding the conceptions of man and woman, their functions, their status do ‘accrue’ and do vary from culture to culture as determined by their socio-economic organizations.” (2) Thus, in every society, there is a stereotyped composite personality portrait of man and woman defining the emotions, interests, moral attitudes, and character traits thought proper and desirable for each sex. And it is usually during the period of adolescence that the appropriate socially derived portrait of sex role is first perceived clearly enough to be incorporated into the ego. But even more important than the matter of perception is the matter of social need. During childhood, sex role is primarily differentiated for purposes of play. But in adolescence, the aim of differentiation is more serious by far, involving a more or less permanent assignment of social, vocational, and

* Kinsey's data confirm the earlier findings of W. S. Taylor (*A Critique of Sublimation in Males: A Study of Forty Superior Single Men*, Genet. Psychol. Monog., 1933, 13, No. 1) and L. A. Kirkendall (*Sex Adjustments of Young Men*, New York: Harper, 1940).

family tasks and aspirations, together with their appropriate personality traits.

"The growing awareness of social sex role in adolescence is largely an outgrowth of the social expectations and values attached to the male or female body," (2) since the adolescent can hardly conceive of this role apart from his perception of the physical and sexual changes that have taken place, or apart from his new hormonally-inspired drives and emotions. In fact, the greater part of social growth that occurs in adolescence is directly attributable to the stimulus of physiological maturation, with its heightened sex consciousness and focusing upon heterosexual interests. The entire new pattern of social behavior which emerges is one which is based on this newly acquired acute sensitivity to all matters sexual, which includes the socially derived norms of masculinity and femininity.

Thus, Stone and Barker* (1937) demonstrated that postmenarcheal girls showed more mature responses than premenarcheal girls, of the same age and socio-economic status, on the Pressy *Interest-Aptitude Test* and on the Sullivan *Test for Developmental Age*. Also, with respect to interest-attitudes, the former showed more concern with personal adornment and with heterosexual interests and activities. Sollenberger* (1940), using the urinary content of male sex hormone as his criterion of sexual maturation, obtained similar results in boys. Significantly, paralleling their earlier physiological development, "mature group influences start earlier for girls than for boys . . . the girls almost drag the boys to social attitudes and interests appropriate to the group." (2) This holds true for "attitudes of adult femininity," for interest in social dancing and in mixed group activities; and for adolescent clique formation. (2) Both girls and boys earn their highest feminine and masculine scores respectively on the Goodenough M-F** Test at the age periods of the usual time of sexual maturation in either sex. (31)

The voluntary segregation of the sexes during childhood gives way at the onset of pubescence to a pattern of studied and labored hostility, "to elaborate disapproval of the other sex." (22) Feeling self-conscious about their new interest in the opposite sex—a feeling which is disallowed by the child in the only socially acceptable way open to them—in antagonism. Later, hood social code—children approaching adolescence first reveal this interest when their status as adolescents is no longer subject to question—heterosexual interests are no longer subterfuged. There is an intense preoccupation with personal appearance and with grooming. Thus, in evaluating their

* Quoted by Blanchard (17)

** Masculinity-femininity.

playmates, boys at eleven and twelve place most emphasis on physical skill, daring, and on ability to show leadership in games. At fourteen and fifteen, social poise, heterosexual effectiveness, and grooming become equally important. (22) In the case of girls, there is a more abrupt change in the basis for peer status. The highly approved of girl in the younger age group (11-12) is a "sedate little lady"—friendly, tidy, gracious, and good humored. She curbs some of her more mature feminine attitudes and affects an air of good fellowship so as to be more acceptable to the less mature boy at her chronological age level. (22) At fourteen, aggressiveness and "dominating tendencies become more desirable." Glamor, ultra-femininity, and sophistication carry girls to the pinnacle of social success. But unlike boys, they have no core value—such as athletic prowess—which persists into the culture as a significant determinant of status. *Heterosexual effectiveness becomes for adolescent boys just another component of a previously-defined masculinity; but, in the case of girls, it becomes an entirely new and solitary criterion for femininity and for feminine prestige in the emerging peer society.*

But, while there is more continuity in the concept of masculinity in this respect, in another way, perhaps more fundamental, boys are required to undergo greater personality change. The implications of emancipation—independence, self-reliance, striving for adult goals—are applied more thoroughly in their case; whereas, to a very large degree, women can still retain many of the dependent and docile attributes of childhood personality status. (5) Because boys have a greater stake in the achievement of adult status, they suffer more acutely as a result of its postponement and react more violently to its deprivation.

However, even if boys are required to effect a greater *total* change in personality status during adolescence, they still enjoy the advantage of consistency over girls—since in our culture the concept of masculinity is remaining relatively static, while the concept of femininity is being revolutionized. "Girls today are torn by the desire to realize their earlier image of themselves as women concerned with children, homes, and a husband and by the social and educational pressure to justify themselves in some socially recognized position. The masculine pattern of achievement, of proving one's adequacy and gaining a place or position in life by what one does, appeals more and more to women. One reason for this . . . [is] the fact that many women are now finding their capacity for child-bearing and rearing socially devaluated . . . The resulting conflict may be a source of uneasiness, if not anxiety for women who by tradition, if not by biological organization and functioning, have been concerned with recognition of themselves as persons—who they are, not what they

achieve." (7) This conflict has its repercussions in the peer culture where the girl is not only undecided as to which goal she would prefer to pursue, but also as to the expectations and preferences of her boy-friend (and future husband). Should she compete aggressively with boys in their own vocational domain, or just acquire a "cultural background?" It also creates difficulties in the home where frequently a divergence of opinion prevails, usually between parents and daughter, but also between the parents themselves.

Special social conditions also impinge on this question. In the twenties, a wave of feminism swept America creating a generation of career-minded women. But the protracted economic depression in the thirties contracted job opportunities so sharply that a reversal in orientation took place, this time towards the home. The war then swung the pendulum in the opposite direction. All of these trend-reversals are, to say the least, most confusing to the modern adolescent girl. As the Lynds* put it, although technological changes have necessarily produced certain alterations in the traditional role of women, these "modifications have been in the *kind of behavior sanctioned by the culture*, not in the belief that men and women are different in character and temperament, and *not* in the ways in which they are believed to be different. The modifications of the behavior patterns themselves consist in *tolerated exceptions* rather than in the development of any clear alternatives meeting with group approval." It is no wonder then that in our society the female desire for a career and for "emancipation" is only too frequently an over-compensation for the frustration of the more feminine motivations which are presently considered more basic to the norms and expectations of our culture.

In certain types of societies such as the Soviet Union, where there is less difference in the socio-economic roles of the sexes, Sherif and Cantril state that there is correspondingly less of a "dichotomy of personality characteristics [between] man and woman." (2) Margaret Mead also cites various norms of masculinity and femininity prevailing in other cultures which establishes quite convincingly that there is no one "natural" human standard. Among the Arapesh, both sexes are docile, co-operative, and unaggressive. "The Mundugumor ideal of character is identical for the two sexes; men and women are expected to be violent, competitive, and aggressively sexed." And most surprising—from our point of view—is the fact that among the Tchambuli, our notions of masculinity and femininity are precisely reversed. (33)

V. EMOTIONAL INSTABILITY IN ADOLESCENCE

The problem of emotional instability is the core problem of adolescence. It cuts across practically every major manifestation of adolescent behavior. In

* Quoted by Sherif and Cantril (2). Author's italics.

its production merge the psychobiological and the psychosocial imperatives for new adjustment which together make of adolescence a biosocial study in development. It is over the nature of emotional instability in adolescence that the major controversy in this field has raged. At first, greater stress was laid on the biological determinants. Then, until very recently, the major emphasis was placed upon specific socio-economic conditions prevailing in a given culture. And now, there finally seems to be room for both points of view. (2) Zachry (6) feels that even under the "best of conditions [adolescents tend] to be variable, unpredictable, moody, alternating between high exultation . . . and despondency."

The concept of emotional instability may be regarded as an altered state of or capacity for emotional reactivity induced by any one or by a combination of specific factors. These include physiological disequilibrium, hormonal stimulation, chronic frustration, unresolved tension or conflict, repressed aggressive impulses anxiety, and states of prolonged confusion. These aforementioned factors contributing to emotional instability have been well established by the experimental psychobiological researches of Pavlov, Liddell, Hamilton, and Masserman.* The state of altered reactivity consists of the following clearly defined behavioral syndrome: a greater magnitude of response to a smaller stimulus; a response which is more generalized, undirected, perseverative, and unadaptive, frequently in reaction to a less specific stimulus; sometimes complete blocking of activity; aggressive responses**; subjective feelings of anxiety, insecurity, inadequacy and depression; and finally, a facilitation of various compensatory, substitutive, or indirectly adjustive mechanisms such as withdrawal (flight), rationalization, displacement of affect, regression, etc.

These various causes of emotional instability, when considered in relation to adolescent problems of adjustment fall into two categories—psychobiological and psychosocial. Thus, the state of physiological flux and disequilibrium, the increased hormonally-inspired sex consciousness and sex drive, the lack of experience in controlling and directing the latter, all make for a heightened capacity for emotional reactivity. The abrupt loss of childhood ego-status, the sudden lack of stable ego-links and anchorages, discrepancies in rate of

* For illustrative accounts of some of these experimental studies, see Massermann, Jules H., *Principles of Dynamic Psychiatry*, Phila.: Saunders, 1946; and Hamilton, Gilbert Van T., *An Introduction to Objective Psychobiology*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby, 1935.

** It is possible to conceive of "accident-proneness" as an expression of aggression (H. Flanders Dunbar, *Emotions and Bodily Changes*, 1935). As a means of expressing their resentment against parents and elders of provoking guilt feelings in the latter adolescents may unconsciously expose themselves to danger. This same element may be present in "thrill seeking" an addition to the more obvious wish to shock and impress adults. Jules Masserman *Ibid.*, has also called attention to the fact that frustrated animals often seek to reassure themselves by toying with a frightening stimulus situation until they master it.

growth, transitional anxiety over proving one's self; problems related to somatic variations and to early or late maturation; too sudden needs for revising body image and incorporating biological sex role; and tensions relevant to emancipation and parent-child conflict all result in a certain amount of confusion, anxiety, chronic frustration, and need for repression of hostile impulses. The same results may be brought about by a host of psycho-social factors: prolonged deprivation of status, confusion concerning socio-economic sex role, inconsistencies and discontinuities in the social order, and the pressures that come from living in an aggressive competitive society.

An absence of sex repression is associated with an adolescence relatively free from *Sturm und Drang*. Both Klineberg (35) and Dollard (30) interpret Mead's Samoan data to mean just this. Malinowski (30) came to the same conclusion in comparing the prevalence of neurotic behavior among tribes with and without rigid sex taboos. However, there is other evidence to show that the important factor is not sex repression *per se*, but incomplete and ambiguous repression. From Mead's data (33) it can not be deduced that Manus girls have more psychological conflicts than Samoan girls despite an almost complete repression of sex. Psychological conflict arises, as in the case of middle- and upper-level boys in our society, only when physiological sex drive is acknowledged and a concomitant serious attempt at repression is made—because in this case an issue of conscience is involved. When the problem of physiological sexual expression is converted into a moral issue—in the face of powerful drives whose emotional representation in consciousness is not repudiated—a bitter conflict is precipitated between the urgency for biological gratification and the demands of conscience. The end result of this conflict is the production of a state of emotional instability which, generally, is partly relieved by the adolescent's resorting to substitutive sexual activities such as petting and masturbation.

Wherever adolescents are given more immediate adult status and responsibilities, less emotional instability seems to develop. Margaret Mead (33) found this to be true in her ethnological studies of adolescence, and Frankwood Williams claims that this situation also prevails in the Soviet Union. (36) Mead also lays much stress on two other factors. In Samoa and Manus, the very fact that life seems pre-arranged and ordered in advance and the absence of inconsistency in the social demands which are made on adolescents make for a lack of noticeable tension and conflict. (33) The Arapesh and Samoans also help to achieve the same result by adopting a more casual attitude towards life, an attitude which places less stress on the value of money, position, success, and power. (33) The relevancy of these observations to the

mental hygiene of adolescence in our American society can hardly be open to question.

Emotional instability varies during the course of adolescence. Dollard (30), using aggressive behavior as his criterion, stoutly maintains that it decreases gradually as substitutive sources of status are established. While this is undoubtedly a crucial factor in determining the intensity of emotional instability, other simpler factors such as distorted pre-adolescent expectations, gradual adaptation to status deprivation, piling up of frustrations, and "end-spurt" should not be overlooked.

VI. PERSONALITY MALADJUSTMENTS AND BEHAVIOR DISORDERS IN ADOLESCENCE

Various sources of maladjustment in relation to their etiological significance in producing emotional instability have been discussed. The latter factor was regarded as the common psychopathological resultant of maladjustment, regardless of source; as an altered state of emotional reactivity or irritability, with well-defined stimulus-response characteristics of its own. These characteristics may not only directly induce behavioral responses (such as aggression and blocking) and subjective reactions of anxiety, insecurity, inadequacy, and depression, but may also facilitate compensatory adjustive mechanisms such as withdrawal, displacement of affect, rationalization, regression, and quests for other sources of gratification. It is through the media of these latter mechanisms that the behavior disorders of adolescence are produced. Since most of these have already been considered in some detail, only certain general problems of classification and interpretation will be considered here, with a brief discussion of adolescent delinquency.

It is obvious that before deciding whether any individual's behavior is normal or abnormal, it must first be related to his *social reality*, which includes not only ethnic culture but also social class. (27) Failure to take such considerations into account and generalizing on the basis of clinical experience derived mainly from upper- and middle-class sources have resulted in some of the original misconceptions of psychoanalysis, particularly those relating to psychosexual development and to sexual repression.

It is necessary to recall also that despite the almost universal occurrence of serious or relatively serious adolescent maladjustment in our society, the greater part "of the so-called problems of adolescents have to do with (exaggeration of) normal reactions or normal phases through which the adolescent passes in his journey toward adulthood." (18) Gardner states that this must be so "because certainly ninety per cent of adolescents do get through this stage of development without any serious emotional scars." (18)

Adolescence as a Source of Serious and Lasting Behavior Disorders

In trying to estimate the importance of adolescent maladjustments as etiological factors in producing persistently serious adolescent and adult behavior disorders, a recent study by Wittman and Huffman (37) is very pertinent. In comparing the developmental, adjustment, and personality characteristics of psychotic, psychoneurotic, delinquent, and normal adolescents, these authors found that the parent-child relationship is of crucial significance in determining the particular type of adolescent behavior disturbance which results. Thus, all of these relatively serious adolescent maladjustments are specifically conditioned by developmental factors existing in the home prior to the onset of adolescence. "Psychotic (schizophrenic) patients rate their mothers as definitely below average in emotional stability and definitely over-solicitous and over-protective. They describe themselves on the average as dependent and with very strong emotional relationships (to) their mothers" (37). The psychotic youths also gave evidence of poor disciplinary, social, and emotional adjustment in childhood. "Personality type (during childhood) was also of diagnostic significance" in schizophrenic adolescents . . . social introversion (being) their strongest trait." (37)

In relation to this problem, Blanchard (17) concludes that "with all the emphasis that has been placed upon adolescent instability and the personality conflicts of adolescence, it might be expected that psychosis or delinquency would often have its onset at this period of life. Statistical studies do not confirm this expectation; available statistics seem to indicate that mental disease (psychosis) usually comes into the open during adult life after adolescence, while delinquency ordinarily begins before adolescence during the childhood years." Blanchard however qualifies this statement somewhat, by saying that "a large proportion of the mental illness having its onset in adult years is actually a delayed outcome for childhood and adolescent experience" (17). Also, despite the relatively low incidence of psychosis in the second decade of life in comparison to that occurring in later periods, there is still a ten-fold increase over the first decade in the rate of mental disease, as well as many more "nervous breakdowns," suicidal attempts, instances of vagrancy, alcoholism, and drug addiction. (13) Furthermore, because of public resistance to institutionalization, many cases of mental disease which are already full blown in adolescence are not hospitalized until later in life.

Yet, after taking all these factors into consideration, it is difficult to escape the conclusion that the maladjustments of adolescence provide less of an important cause of serious mental disorder than a rigorous testing and proving of the adequacy of the earlier and more fundamental adjustment and de-

velopmental tasks of childhood. When the crucial problems facing the adolescent—emancipation, sex expression, and peer culture socialization—are re-examined, it can be seen that the outcome of emancipation depends on the success achieved in completing childhood and pre-adolescent developmental phases; that some degree of experience with sex control is had prior to adolescence; and that peer culture socialization is primarily an extension of a problem germane to childhood.

Classification of Adolescent Maladjustments and Behavior Disorders

The classification of adolescent adjustment problems is clinically practical since the same general scheme can be used for classifying the maladjustments and behavior disorders commonly met in clinical practice. In the first group, we must consider maladjustments which primarily represent a continuation of difficulties arising from failure to solve some of the developmental tasks of childhood and which adolescence only aggravates further. In the second group are those disorders which arise from difficulties associated specifically with the developmental tasks of adolescence. (18) If the case belongs in the first category, it is more likely to be serious and resistive to treatment. If it belongs in the second category, the prognosis is very favorable unless it involves a disturbed emancipation process rooted in a fundamental error of child-training.

The first category of adolescent behavior disorder will not be discussed further since a complete treatment of the subject can be found in texts dealing specifically with child development and child guidance. It may be noted, however, that, since adolescence is such a rigorous test of the soundness of the foundations of personality laid in childhood, many earlier disturbances scarcely noted before, or thought to be benign, may suddenly flare up and become alarming during adolescence. The most serious of these childhood problems relate to improper socialization and excessive introversion; to feelings of insecurity, inadequacy, or anxiety; and to difficulties associated with the over-valued, rejected, dominated, or over-protected child. Once removed from the protected environment of the home and required to compete on an equal footing with other boys and girls; once subjected to the multifarious stresses and strains associated with adolescent adjustment in our society; once mercilessly exposed under the dissection microscope of the peer society in its efforts to make him conform as closely to every other adolescent as one new penny to another, is it inconceivable that any boy or girl who has a basic personality defect can continue successfully to mask its presence?

With respect to those disorders relevant to the specific adjustment tasks of adolescent maturation, it is again necessary to ascertain whether the

difficulty is occasioned by residual developmental defects carried over from childhood. This is especially important in problems relating to emancipation or to parent-child conflict, for it immediately establishes the seriousness and the prognosis of the case. Several examples might help to make this point clear. Adolescents are frequently brought to guidance centers because they manifest an exaggerated need for independence, because they delight in being perverse and contrary, and because they openly defy parental authority. This reaction may be an exaggerated response to status deprivation, or to the parents' ambivalent attitude; it may be incited by the militancy of the child's peer group, or it may represent a distorted idea of the very meaning of emancipation in the mind of the adolescent. Under these circumstances, the problem can often be quickly solved by interpreting parent to child and *vice versa* or by favorable manipulation of the environment. However, if these very same manifestations of exaggerated independence represent the aggressive, resentful, or spiteful reactions of a rejected, harshly dominated child or a combination of these reactions plus a reassertion of the infantile desire for absolute volitional independence in an inconsistently handled, over-valued child, the matter is more serious. Where the parent-child conflict is not a transitory symptom of a developmental phase but is rooted in a fundamental error of child-training, it may lead to serious consequences (delinquency, running away from home, impulsive marriage, abrupt withdrawal from school, etc.) with the likelihood that the conflict will persist into adult life. Parents frequently seek and can be given assurance that if their relationship with their children had been previously established on a basis of mutual respect and affection, it is reasonably certain that the same relationship will be re-established once the turbulent period of adolescence is over.

The same problem of differential diagnosis arises in cases where there is an apparent repudiation of the goals of maturation, when the adolescent actively resists the process of growing up. This is a more serious problem than that of exaggerated independence, indicating an urgency for obtaining professional assistance. (18) The seriousness of this type of behavior lies in the fact that it "offers a definite interference to, or a block to, the social and emotional growth that must take place year after year." (18) It may also point "not so much to a problem of the moment . . . but rather to possible unresolved early childhood problems." (18) Viewed in the latter light, it may be regarded as the expected outcome in an overly dependent and motivationally inadequate child; as an act of sabotage, resentment, or aggression in a harshly dominated child; and in an inconsistently disciplined, over-valued child as an expression of aggressive vindictiveness, and as evidence of cling-

ing to the infantile ego-attributes of hedonism, irresponsibility, immediate gratification, and executive dependence. But on the other hand, there are also other, more benign possibilities arising from the *adolescent situation* itself. It may be an exaggeration of the normally found ambivalence with respect to growing up, or may be associated with the customary devaluation of parents, as a result of which parental desires for maturation of the child are repudiated along with everything else. (18) It may also be a regressive phenomenon in the face of overwhelming status deprivation, or part of an aggressive group reaction.

Thus, in trying to appraise the seriousness of any form of adolescent behavior disorder, the same principle holds as in the diagnosis and prognosis of any form of psychological disturbance: The grossness of the overt manifestations (symptoms) are of far less significance than their meanings. Hence it is to the latter that the clinician primarily directs his attention.

As already mentioned, most of the problems of adolescents that require clinical attention fall into the category of extremes or exaggerations of normally expected responses in adolescence as it is usually found in our society. Where adolescent behavior disorders become more serious, they closely resemble the various neuroses and psychoses met with in the clinical practice of adult psychiatry.

Adolescent Delinquency

In this section an attempt will be made merely to relate some of the implications of the general adjustment and developmental problems of adolescence to the more specific topic of delinquency.

In terms of the general incidence of crime in relation to age, it is undeniable that criminal behavior is "characteristically a youthful occupation." (30) During adolescence there is a steady increase in the rate of male delinquency which reaches its high point at about the age of 25. (30) Nevertheless, it is important to bear in mind that, "while delinquency may be an outcome of adolescent conflicts, even if it has not been characteristic of the individual in childhood, it is a more probable outcome if it has previously been the reaction to earlier childhood conflicts or other childhood experiences." (17)

The psychological meaning of delinquency is in itself a very difficult point. What makes the problem even more difficult is the fact that unlike other forms of adolescent psychological disturbance, it is weighted with moral judgments and has a definite legal status which varies from community to community. In this respect Zachry observes: "To isolate certain forms of emotional disturbance and to label them with a term of opprobrium is

both scientifically inaccurate and inimical to the interests of youth. It presupposes an attitude of sitting in moral judgment, of attaching blame for behavior which should be considered as a symptom of disturbance. It also assumes that behavior of a certain type is always more injurious to society than other forms of behavior also resulting from undue emotional pressure. . . . We all know that the boy or girl who may never appear before any court may be a greater potential social menace than one who does. Moreover, an act of aggression sometimes results from the feeling that the world is hostile toward the aggressor. . . . To place the badge 'delinquent' upon them at the age when they are most sensitive, most easily wounded, only confirms them in their belief and consequently tends to intensify the impulse toward aggression." (6) While agreeing with the greater part of this statement, it may be noted that there has been too great a tendency (in modern psychological thinking about criminality) towards divorcing all behavior of its ethical content. In other words, it seems just as one-sided to ascribe all anti-social behavior to underlying psychological disturbances as to see in it only a manifestation of basic immorality. From the standpoint of individual behavior, there is a moral aspect to most purposeful human activity, whose psychological reality cannot be ignored. And while this aspect is so closely interwoven with the aspect of psychological disturbance that the two can hardly be separated, the relative significance of each in a given case of delinquency is usually clear enough to allow some judgment as to the individual's moral and legal accountability.

In attempting to assess the meaning of delinquent behavior, it is also necessary to remember that there are class standards regulating the overt expression of direct physical aggression; and hence what might almost be regarded as normal for one class might be viewed with alarm if occurring in another social setting.

Aggression, as Dollard and his co-workers maintain (30), is closely related to the frustration of adolescent sex strivings and status aspirations. But in a broader sense, it is a form of behavior which is facilitated by emotional instability which, in turn, is the outcome of various deprivations, conflicts, repressions, anxieties, confusions, hormonal changes, and tensions resulting from the psychobiological and psychosocial problems of adolescence. Also, due to the rapidity with which the social order is changing, the adolescent finds it difficult to anchor himself to any stable set of moral values. Thus, at a time when his concepts of moral authority and responsibility are being dissociated from parental figures, he is being hindered in his search for new moral values by the general ethical confusion and by the laxity in

ethical standards which, by and large, prevail in our society today. It is, therefore, surprising indeed that, despite his being in such a marginal and confusing stage of moral transition, experimentation with various norms of ethical conduct does not lead more frequently into delinquent behavior.

In the differential diagnosis of delinquency, as in the diagnosis of any form of aggressive behavior, it is first necessary to decide whether the reaction involves an exaggerated response to some of the adolescent problems of adjustment, or whether it is rooted in more fundamental sources of parent-child conflict. The various possibilities in the latter case and the interpretations offered for same have already been considered in the discussion of adolescent independence.

The importance of parent-child relationships for the subsequent development of delinquency has been universally stressed. Wittman and Huffman's study seems to indicate that, whereas the mother seems more important for general personality development, the father plays a more important role in relation to moral growth. The delinquent girls in their group rated their fathers as being below average in emotional stability; as not at all solicitous, affectionate, or demonstrative; and as violent disciplinarians, unconcerned with their children's futures. As a group, their emotional reaction to the father was negative, much more so than to the mother. Both delinquent boys and girls "rate their parents at the indifferent or rejecting end of the scale." (37) Because the social, emotional, and academic adjustment of delinquent girls is only slightly below average, while that of delinquent boys is very poor, these same authors suggest that the maladjustment of the former "is primarily related not to personality difficulties within themselves, but to difficulties of adjustment within the family group and to their general environment;" while the maladjustment of the latter "seems to be related to their own individual deviations from established patterns or norms as much as to deviations within their environment." (37) This difference becomes more understandable if we bear in mind that the delinquent girls represented in the study were mostly "sex delinquents." As Frank (7) points out, the source of the difficulty in this case is frequently an inability to incorporate biological sex role successfully into the ego because of the father's hostile and deprecating attitude towards the female sex. These female sex delinquents then, contrary to the general impression, frequently have little sex interest or drive and merely utilize their position as passive sex objects as a means of "exercising power over men," and in this way obtaining "revenge for the years of humiliation they suffered as girls." Hence, since, in the case of female sex delinquency, the source of maladjustment is more limited in scope,

we might reasonably expect a lesser involvement of total personality structure than in the case of delinquent boys.

Turning now to cases of adolescent delinquency which are less rooted in early and fundamental sources of parent-child conflict than in current problems of adolescent adjustment, it becomes evident at once that this type of delinquency manifests itself more on a group than on an individual basis. It has already been pointed out, that under certain conditions, status deprivation may give rise to the formation of a predatory gang whose members evolve their own ethical code based on the premise that *any* behavior is justifiable as long as it is intended to retaliate for unjust and repressive treatment received at the hands of adult society. In this case, the entire body of criminal law is identified with the status-denying adult, and, by lashing out against the former, they are squaring accounts with the latter. If in addition, deprivation is associated with discrimination based on such *permanent* factors as racial or national origin, the predatory attitude tends to become fixed, since the gang then views the problem of acquiring status as not being limited to adolescence—as in the case of *other* youths—but as a *permanent* struggle against overwhelming odds.

In other less extreme cases, group delinquency may have less of a predatory character and may consist merely of sporadic outbursts of group resistance to adult authority, the latter again being identified with the rules of established society. As Tryon (22) points out, individuals seldom resist maturation as individuals, since the same goal can be more effectively accomplished in group formations. Group loyalty and intragroup solidarity may be strong enough in adolescence to sweep some youths into the stream of delinquency despite certain innate disinclinations and reservations which they feel as individuals.

VII. MENTAL HYGIENE

Personality Training

The various physical and sexual changes wrought by adolescence merely precipitate the need for transforming a childhood personality structure into an adult configuration replete with adult goals and goal-seeking patterns. But whether this transformation *actually* occurs depends on the type of personality training provided for prior to adolescence. As Meyers points out, more than "a mere table of rules" must be given to a parent in the effort to make him modify some of his more inimical methods of child training—since the "sources of a parent's inadequacies as a parent are found in his own childhood." (8) Moreover—as is proven by the proportionate number of "problem children" among the offspring of psychologists and psychiatrists—there is

often an unbridgable gap between theoretical understanding and practical application. It is difficult under the very best of circumstances for parents to change drastically their methods and attitudes of child-rearing; but the difficulties become immeasurably greater if the parent is receiving some form of compensatory gratification from his errors. Even where this latter factor does not operate, just to admit the need for drastic revision is tantamount to indicting oneself as a parent. Analyzing the results achieved in the Judge Baker Guidance Center in Boston, Rotenberg concluded that "no child improved greatly without some change in parental attitude or in the home situation" (38). And in view of the difficulties inherent in the latter task, there is certainly no room for undue optimism.

The chief goal of mental hygiene, insofar as adolescent personality training is concerned, is to avoid those factors in child-rearing which predispose towards failure in adult maturation. So far, we have considered two main types of maturational failure—that occurring in the intrinsically secure child emotionally dependent on his parents and that occurring in the intrinsically insecure child with hypertrophied ego-demands, lacking this dependent relationship. In the case of the former, over-solicitude, over-protection, over-indulgence, never allowing the child to do anything for himself or to assume any responsibility may be carried to the point where the child thinks of himself as a perpetual satellite and never evolves any independent ego-demands of his own, in addition to being passive and dependent. Where the parent is only benevolently domineering, adult goals are usually developed—passivity, dependency, and lack of initiative remaining as the main developmental scars. In certain cases, however, the child may react to unbearable domination by actively repudiating or by passively sabotaging the goals of maturation. Obviously in all of these cases, the prophylactic task is to avoid the parental attitudes which lead to these disastrous consequences. However, this is easier said than done, because in our society, "although a negative rejecting attitude on the part of parents is frowned upon . . . there appears to be much more social acceptance of the doting, emotional, but domineering type of reaction." (37)

The American parent has been so over-impressed with the dangers of rejecting his children that he has veered to the opposite extreme. Some parents, in fact, conceive of their parental role as intended to insure the fact that their child suffers not the slightest frustration, since this, it is argued, makes for emotional insecurity. While holding no brief for unnecessary and pointless frustration, it seems reasonable to expect that purposeful and persistent avoidance of frustration creates for the child a conception of reality which is so

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distorted that he becomes exclusively conditioned to living in a hedonistic environment. Under these conditions, maturation, which involves adjustment to a reality fashioned in good part from the fabric of frustration, becomes an utter impossibility.

If children are ever going to be able to accept responsibility and develop initiative and capacity for independent judgment, they must be encouraged to do so before they become adolescents. This requires that they be allowed to accept the values of our culture rather than having them crammed down their throats, with withdrawal of parental emotional support as the ever-threatening penalty for disagreement. (23) Children should feel free to accept whatever values seem reasonable and just to them without having to bear an excessive burden of guilt, derived from the disapproval of piqued parents. (23) And finally, children must be prepared to take the responsibility for and face the implications of their own behavior. Parental whitewashing serves only to perpetuate the tendency toward rationalization on which all inadequate personalities thrive.

In the intrinsically insecure, ego-hypertrophic child, who has either been rejected or over-valued, the possibilities for maturational failure are not only less but also different in nature. Satellization having never occurred, there is no problem involved in the re-assertion of volitional independence, which, after all, is the main task of adolescence. The precise dangers for maturation lie in the retention of the *other* infantile attributes of the ego; namely, hedonistic motivation, the urge for immediate gratification, immunity from responsibility, and executive dependence. Since none of these factors have been modified by deference to parental authority and approval, they exist all ready for full-blown expression in the event that maturation does not take place. Fortunately, however, this is not the rule, since exaggerated needs for volitional independence and hypertrophic ego-demands both predispose towards successful maturation. The insecure individual with inflated ambitions and with a driving need for self-assertion clearly recognizes that maturation is a realistic and necessary step in his struggle for power. Failure to mature, however, may arise under special conditions; e.g., in cases where inconsistently disciplined, over-valued child or in the harshly rejected child. Here there is an active repudiation of the goals of maturation (except for that of volitional independence) motivated by a vindictive resentment against the parent which is strong enough to over-shadow all other personal ambitions.

Again, when it comes to the prevention of either parental rejection or over-valuation of the child, the task that confronts us is not an easy one. Although it is true that the rejecting parent tends to be socially frowned upon nowadays, the same narcissistic preoccupation with himself, that causes

him to neglect his child, provides him with a thick skin in the face of public or private criticism. The over-valuing parent on the other hand poses as a model of devotion. Seldom is he willing to admit that his overflowing love for the child is really only love for an extension of his own ego. Through the medium of his child, he sees another opportunity for gratifying his own high-flown ambitions. Under these circumstances, what interest can he possibly have in properly devaluing the grandiose pretensions of his infant?

So much stress has been laid upon the importance of loving a child that the more important factor of the *kind of love* has been largely overlooked. The intrinsic feeling of emotional security and adequacy comes not from receiving an exclusively one-way flow of love, but from being able to identify without fear or reservation with a stronger protective individual; from being lovable and also capable of giving love. It is the outcome of being loved for one's self rather than as a projected object of parental self-love. Unless the child can learn to assume his normal place in the hierarchy of household values, not only are his chances of acquiring intrinsic emotional security inevitably doomed, but so is his adoption of a realistic and judicious level of aspiration. While such a child may, and usually does, meet the problems of maturation successfully, excessive egocentrism and inability to give as well as to take hamper his socialization in the peer group.

Parent-Child Relationships During Adolescence

Although parent-youth conflict is neither alarming nor permanent providing that the pre-adolescent relationship between child and parent is satisfactory, it cannot be denied that "intimate and confidential relationships with parents . . . are definitely connected with good adjustment *during* adolescence." (39) The importance of this confidential relationship is that it furnishes a natural basis for the child's seeking of guidance from the parent when he feels that he needs it. The ambivalence of the adolescent's attitude towards emancipation is such that "beneath the indifference and devaluation there is a strong inner need for parental aid and parental guidance." (18) But parent-youth hostility has been stereotyped to such a degree that the child is generally too ill at ease to approach his parents even when he'd like to most. This is truly unfortunate, since it adds to the abruptness of the adolescent transitional period which, if made more gradual at the onset (while shortened throughout), might help to cushion some of the stresses and strains of adolescence. If parents, on the other hand, could accept the fact that emancipation does not necessarily imply cutting the child adrift emotionally as soon as he is mature sexually, the painfulness of the adolescent's emotional marginality might be considerably reduced.

Parent-youth conflict would also be alleviated if parents could refrain from responding in kind to the aggressive provocations of adolescents, since this only sets up a vicious cycle based on the "either or" proposition from which unfortunately neither the adolescent nor the parent can withdraw without serious loss of face." (18) The former at least has the justification of emotional instability to excuse his behavior.

The bitterest complaints which adolescents have to offer about their parents have reference to the essential lack of respect and dignity that the latter show for them. It is very humiliating for one aspiring to be an adult to be castigated like a child, to be nagged, yelled, and shouted at. (6) But even worse are the scorn, the ridicule, and the condescending attitude that greet physical awkwardness, faltering or confused articulation of political views, and clumsy efforts at heterosexual expression. Even if he cares little about everything else, every adolescent—just because he is first aspiring to adult status—cherishes an ideal about the essential dignity of a human being, which, if respected, would leave him decidedly less provocative and resistive to guidance. Zachry (6) suggests that giving the adolescent a place at the family councils would be a most constructive way both of showing respect for his developing adulthood and of adding dignity to his precarious status.

The reaction of many parents to the recalcitrance of their adolescent children is to assert parental authority, to insist upon unquestioned obedience, and to institute severe punitive measures. They make it clear that they will "stand for no nonsense" and will "put the child into his place." (6) Zachry comments that such discipline may be temporarily effective and achieve a certain outward conformity to visible authority by employing the repressive measures of fear, pain, ridicule, and deprivation. (6) What it fails to achieve, however, is that *inner* control, based upon an acceptance of the moral authority of society which underlies adult as contrasted to childhood moral behavior; and in addition, it carries the danger of provoking further aggressive defiance and encouraging further sabotage or repudiation of adult goals.

This does not imply in the least that unlimited freedom or license is advocated. The essence of guidance is direction rather than uninhibited freedom of self-expression. In the first place, the concept of unrestricted liberty leaves little room for the development of moral responsibility or of respect for the rights of others. (39) Secondly, it frustrates the adolescent's need for definite and unambiguous standards of social reality with the aid of which he can control and orient his new emotional urges and ego-demands. It is one of the main functions of both home and school, as representatives of the social order, to make certain very firm, definite, and consistent demands on

adolescents. Summarizing their experience in the treatment of adolescent disturbances, Hacker and Geleerd* state, ". . . the treatment goal for adolescents [is] the attempt to reconcile the patient [to] the inevitable . . . demands of reality; and by insisting on a realistic relatively impersonal minimum set of freedom restrictions, to develop capacity to stand some narcissistic wound in this process." (40).

But just because adolescence is a period of self assertion and emancipation, guidance must necessarily be of the "nondirective"** variety rather than authoritarian and dogmatic in nature. "Reasons contributed by other people seldom mean a thing to [the adolescent]; he has to be helped to work things out for himself in his own mind." (44) There must be self-determination and free acceptance in the choice of goals rather than forceful "imposition of an alien set of values." (23) In place of the guilt feelings which the child experiences when he rejects his parents' values, the adolescent should learn to feel guilty when he violates his *own* standards and values. In this way, guilt can become a mature and constructive force in self-motivation for improvement (23) instead of a retarding element in maturation.

Vocational Guidance

One of the most hopeful and constructive of all adolescent mental hygiene possibilities lies in the field of vocational guidance. The existence of a baffling number of vocations with their changing requirements and rewards, about which the adolescent can have little first-hand information, is a primary source of conflict and confusion during adolescence. Thus, "an adolescent who has a vocational goal before him . . . one in which he has confidence and a reasonable degree of assurance that he can succeed, will almost certainly have fewer problems than one who does not have such a plan. . . . Many of the troubles of young people grow out of the fact that they have no large purpose motivating their daily behavior. The human animal is such that, with a given accepted purpose luring him on, he will organize his whole behavior pattern around it. In this sense, competent vocational guidance can help to reduce the number and seriousness of the problems in the other areas of life." (39) It is quite apparent that vocational success is a central factor in the achievement of adult status, for on it depend the possibilities for complete emancipation, for economic independence, and for emotional, social, and psychosexual maturation. Many of the anxieties of adolescents and young adults would disappear entirely, or be considerably alleviated if they could achieve the proper type of job placement. Hence, in the

* cf. These authors for a psychoanalytical discussion of the problem of adolescent discipline (40).

** For an exposition of the "nondirective" approach to guidance cf. Rogers, Carl, *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, Boston: Mifflin, 1942; and Cantor, N. *The Dynamics of Learning* (23).

more usual type of adolescent maladjustment, the psychotherapeutic possibilities inherent in vocational guidance greatly exceed those present in extended exploration of conflictful emotional material. Only too frequently does the latter goal become the main preoccupation of the psychotherapeutic session, while the immediate urgency for vocational adaptation is de-emphasized so effectively that by implication it is regarded as almost irrelevant to the patient's psychological disturbance. It is hardly surprising then that, if in the course of extensive psychotherapy, substantial progress towards vocational adjustment is not simultaneously made (rather than postponed to await the solution of emotional conflicts) all the potential benefits of ventilation, catharsis, insight, and transference might be largely nullified by the patient's failure to possess the one practical instrument he needs to effect his maturation. And thus after completing several years of the treatment on which he had pinned his highest hopes, he emerges, more crushed and forlorn than before; because not only does he still have his original emotional conflicts, but also he is now several years older, still a child in his father's house, and the prospect of vocational adaptation still but a vague and intangible dream.

The essential elements of vocational guidance are not difficult to understand: they consist of vocational interest, vocational aptitude, and job demand. The first consideration in choosing a career is obviously that of interest. Vocational interests are affected by age, intelligence, sex, social status, the need to make money, and the apparent proximity of getting a job. To a very surprising extent, patterns of interests remain relatively stable and persistent. This is also true in the case of "the vocational ambitions of . . . unemployed persons [which] have often been shown to be impractical . . . even when opposed by a variety of external influences." (29) The factor that accounts for this stability of vocational interest is undoubtedly the social prestige value of the particular job in relation to the individual's level of aspiration. "A certain inner security and perhaps some status among his fellows is achieved by the adolescent merely by making a verbal statement of occupational choice and advertising the facts." (29)

The first task of vocational guidance, therefore, is to help establish and clarify goals. (42) In doing this, the counselor has at his disposal various vocational interest tests. He also has to divorce vocational interest from parental desires and from glamorized notions of job duties and job prestige. But even more important is the need to reconcile and harmonize interests with objective aptitudes and with reasonable expectations of job placement. In view of the persistent trend towards reduced social mobility, a general dévaluation of vocational ambitions would seem to be indicated. (29)

It is the counselor's constant duty to emphasize and to have the adolescent accept the imperative need for vocational adjustment as the core problem of adult maturation. Without this prior acceptance, all specific suggestions are in vain. And in the event that an unsatisfying compromise must be accepted, it should be pointed out that vocational stabilization at any level of aspiration, if tangible and realistic, is preferable by far to grandiose but vaguer expectations, or to a complete absence of any adjustment. This proposition is not as self-evident as it seems, since the number of individuals with hypertrophied ego-demands is legion, who, on being denied their whole-loaf ambitions, seem to prefer no loaf at all to taking many possible and proffered varieties of half-loaf solutions.

Sex Guidance

In commenting upon what is supposedly the most advanced level of sex guidance available in our society today, Frank (7) has this to say: "It is . . . ironic to recall that when boys and girls are most eager to make an approach to each other, to discover what a man and woman mean to each other, and how they should act toward each other, we can only offer them sex education, *i.e.*, teaching about procreation which is the last thing they are really concerned about. They want to know not about babies, but what you can do with sex, what you can give and receive from the other, what love means. Instead of giving them our best knowledge and wisest counsel and helping them to direct these interests, the cautious parent may instead concentrate upon terrorizing them with the dangers of venereal disease."

If a program of sex guidance then is going to be more than an evasive hiding behind the "scientific" coat-tails of sexual anatomy, physiology, birth control, and venereal disease; if it sincerely intends to meet the actual sex needs and problems of youth by advancing beyond the stage of vague generalizations, it must at least consider the following points:

1. The advocacy of some ethical, philosophical, and socially desirable goal and standard of sexual behavior.
2. Recognition of existing sex mores and of individual, class, and sex differences in sexual attitudes, needs, and capacity. The right of self-determination within the limits of social obligations.
3. The actual limitations placed upon sexual activity in our society by prolonged adolescence and retarded emotional and psychosexual development; by the late age of marriage, and the general ignorance and inhibitions about sexual matters.
4. Specific instruction regarding anatomy, physiology, birth control, venereal disease, sexual techniques, and the psychology of sex.

5. Precise information about the advantages and disadvantages of various forms of sexual expression, such as masturbation, petting, premarital intercourse, and about the possibilities of repression and "sublimation."
6. Education for marriage.

Sexual Morality

The legitimacy of advocating an ethical goal of sexual behavior has long been a moot point in the history of sex education. Such education, it is often argued, should be factual and descriptive and should not presume to tell an individual how to behave in an area of activity which is primarily personal rather than social in nature. What is forgotten in such arguments is that *all* education is directed towards a purposeful and moral goal regardless of whether an individual sees fit to accept it. Since it is impossible to conceive of any directed behavior which is devoid of either purpose or moral content, how can guidance neglect either aspect? The individual still retains his right of self-determination by being free to accept or reject the goals and standards offered him, providing that his behavior does not infringe upon the rights or interests of others.

The only goal of sexual activity that can be conceived of as being appropriate to the cultural and social level of our society is a psycho-affectional one. There is ample evidence, from the clinical histories of upper-level women in our culture and from the Arapesh society, that the psychophysiological sex drive can be effectively repressed merely by passive de-emphasis without producing any psychological conflict or disturbance; and that most sexual consciousness and sex urge can be channelized along psycho-affectional lines. Conflict only arises where the existence of psychophysiological sex drive is acknowledged, but at the same time doubt is expressed as to its moral legitimacy, and a serious effort at repression is made. The same absence of conflict has, of course, been shown to exist in societies where psychophysiological drive is not tabooed and where ample opportunity exists, either formal or clandestine, for gratification of these needs. In another part of this article, we have also examined evidence which would seem to indicate that, once psychophysiological needs are acknowledged, either "sublimation" or complete repression becomes impossible.

While it might be argued that free expression of the psychophysiological component of sex is more "natural," this in itself would mean little, since practically every other "natural" drive in man has been drastically modified and channelized into highly differentiated and limited modes of expression. (35) In advocating a psycho-affectional goal of sexual behavior, however, it need

not be given the same negative connotations which it has acquired in our Anglo-Saxon culture. In other words, our present-day acceptance of psycho-affective sexuality need not be regarded as the lesser of two evils—as a form of sexual expression tolerated only in relation to marital affectional needs, and otherwise looked down upon as ugly and reprehensible, as “something to be relegated to the darkness of the night.” (33)* Instead, it can be given a more positive emphasis as in the Arapesh society, where it is regarded as an added means of enriching and beautifying an affectional relationship between man and woman. (33) Sexual activity, then, could become but a component of the emotional expression of the total personality, instead of a partially repressed emotional outlet in women, and a combination of physiological and affectional behavior in men (each of which is frequently pursued independently of the other). This concept of sexuality involves a high degree of ego-involvement which disallows a casual attitude towards sex activity, such as that which underlies sexual promiscuity, experimentation, and flirtation. It presupposes a certain degree of mutual satellization or self-surrender, for, otherwise, the emotional relationship consists of self-love, self-gratification, and vainglorious pride in the fact of exclusive sexual possession. The goal toward which it strives is the monogamous type of marital relationship which we have already adopted in our society. The difference, however, would be that marriage would be advocated as the best possible medium for enhancing a psycho-affective sexual partnership rather than as the factor which in itself legitimizes something which is inherently ugly. If boys and girls were brought to feel this way about sex, psychosexual development would proceed accordingly, and the problems of psychophysiological needs would for the most part vanish. And if marriage could occur at a reasonably early age, the sexual turmoil which now characterizes adolescent development would be a thing of the past.

Sex Guidance in Our Present Social Setting

The program of redirection and reorientation of the goals of sexual behavior presented above is obviously a long-range educational program.** In the field of guidance, however, there has been great hesitancy about advocating any moral or philosophical goal of sex activity on the grounds that this problem is outside the scope of psychological direction. As a result, the aim of sex guidance has been conceived of in terms of adjusting the inner sex needs of the adolescent to the limitations imposed by his environment, with-

* For a description of a primitive society where sexuality is repressed even more than in ours, see Margaret Mead's account of “Manus Attitudes Toward Sex.” (33)

** cf. Havelock Ellis, *Psychology of Sex*, New York: R. Long and R. R. Smith, 1933. Chapters III, VII, VIII.

out any direct attempt being made to influence his psychosexual development. Thus, various authors differ as to the degree of sexual repression thought advisable. However, the advocacy of certain moral goals of sexual behavior does have an important place in the practical clinical problems and educational tasks of sex guidance, because only in this way can answers be given as to the meaning, the role, and the importance of sex in the modern world. To separate these questions from the province of sex guidance is to make of it a meaningless jumble of isolated facts, merely to substitute five-syllable for four-letter words.

Nevertheless, one cannot ignore the social reality in which adolescents live. By the time they appear for guidance, depending on their social *milieu*, they have already incorporated a vast array of sexual attitudes, urges, inhibitions, taboos, and morally weighted opinions about the desirability and legitimacy of various forms of sexual activity. One can only present certain moral formulations to them and point out how they could be applied in practice. But because of the course which psychosexual development has *already* taken, one cannot expect that these precepts will be either acceptable or realistically applicable in every case. In practice, therefore, after putting the question of sexuality in its proper context of goal and purpose, the best one can do is to equip the boy and girl for intelligent self-determination by supplying him with precise data regarding birth control, venereal disease, and the advantages and disadvantages of various forms of sexual expression in his natural, everyday life.

What are the advantages and disadvantages of the three chief sources of sexual outlet in adolescence—masturbation, petting, and premarital intercourse? Answers to such questions must be specific and related directly to the adolescent's actual problems, if they are to be meaningful and helpful. (39) But again, they can only be offered as suggestions; for final responsibility as to sexual behavior must remain a matter for the individual, governed by his particular needs, capacity, attitudes, and conditioning. In the last analysis, an individual is only responsible to the inner standards, which he has incorporated, for behavior that is personal and not detrimental to the interests of society.

Masturbation, as already pointed out, is only harmful if it leads to worry and feelings of guilt. As Kinsey suggests, the implications of the practice as an escape from heterosexual reality must be considered. (19) As an outlet for accumulated psychophysiological sexual tension (which might otherwise interfere with the satisfactory performance of the adolescent's school and other responsibilities), it fulfills a useful function in the case of those indi-

viduals who have compunctions about sexual contact with the opposite sex on any other but a psycho-affectional basis. The danger lies in the fact that, through conditioning, it may become more than a substitute for heterosexual activity and evolve as an end in itself. In this respect, petting is preferable since it is closer to the goal of heterosexual activity and, under any circumstances, is a more meaningful and emotional sexual experience. Although ideally it (petting) should be on an affectional basis, in practice, it is usually the psychophysiological outlet of adolescents who delude themselves into believing that, by refraining from intra-vaginal intercourse, they are preserving their virginity. (19) In this sense, it is the inhibited physiological equivalent of the premarital intercourse of the lower-level male.

But it has certain other practical advantages for adolescents who are either ignorant about prophylactic measures regarding birth control and venereal disease, or who are very alarmed about these possibilities. (19) Also, in the case of girls who indulge in it, mainly on an affectional basis, and in the case of boys who would otherwise masturbate—both of whom refrain from intercourse on the grounds of the above mentioned inconsistent moral premise—it probably serves a desirable function by reducing auto-eroticism, and as Kinsey (19) points out, by releasing some of the unnatural inhibitions about sexual expression, especially in the female. The nervous tension presumably aroused by petting has been grossly exaggerated. If orgasm results, there is no residual tension. If orgasm does not occur, any tension which does not subside spontaneously is frequently relieved by masturbation, the event which would have otherwise occurred in the first place. (19)

On either a psychophysiological or psycho-affectional basis, premarital intercourse seems to be the most normal type of sexual outlet. As Kinsey (19) states, the outcome depends upon the type of partner, the degree of acceptability without conflict, the conditions under which it occurs, and the worries about pregnancy and venereal disease which are generated. Kinsey reports that few males ever regret premarital intercourse (19), but this is probably less true of females, as most psychiatrists can testify from clinical experience. Upper- and middle-level adolescents—who in general are more inhibited about sex—usually decide on premarital intercourse only after a prolonged petting relationship, if they do so at all; and usually establish such relations only with the prospective spouse. (19) But the realistic psychiatrist and guidance specialist, regardless of his personal views on the matter, can no longer shut his eyes to the fact that as much as 85 per cent of the unmarried male population regards premarital intercourse as the customary and only normal goal of sexual activity. (19)

Social Measures

From our survey of adolescence in different times and cultures, we saw that the prolonged deprivation of status to which adolescents are subjected in our society is one of the main causes of the tension, anxiety, and emotional instability characteristic of this transitional period. And since we must recognize that the social order is being constantly altered under the impact of highly motivated pressure groups, there is no reason to resign ourselves passively to the immutability of this social situation insofar as it affects adolescents. It is possible for society to *create* conditions under which adolescents can achieve a large measure of status, responsibility, and importance in community projects and organization. In our own times, we have seen the establishment of such projects as the National Youth Administration and the C.C.C. camps. We have also seen what youth has been able to accomplish for the war effort. There is no reason why adolescents cannot be assigned definite responsibilities in relation to community welfare projects and receive commensurate rewards and recognition. The Veterans Administration is presently revolutionizing the social basis of late adolescence. By subsidizing education and vocational training, it is accelerating the achievement of adult status by making possible early marriage and emancipation from parental economic support. Sooner or later, society will realize that the economic investment in such projects is trifling compared to the potential return in making constructive use of youthful energies, in facilitating adult maturation, and in reducing the harmful effects of emotional instability.

At the same time that the transitional period is being shortened and given more definite intermediate status, adolescents must also be given greater assurance of eventually attaining adult status. As Allison Davis states, "In order . . . to make low-status children anxious to work hard, study hard, save their money, and accept stricter sex *mores*, our society must convince them of the *reality* of the *rewards* at the end of the anxiety-laden climb. . . . Our society cannot hope, therefore, to educate the greater mass of lower-class people in any really effective way until it has *real* rewards to offer them for learning the necessary anxiety." (27) But this anxiety need not be directed towards achieving money, power, and competitive position. As Margaret Mead (33) suggests, there is evidence from other societies to indicate that there are greater prospects for happiness if the goals of self-realization and social usefulness are stressed instead.

Recreation: Improving the Peer Society

Since the peer group is now accepted as one of the major training institutions of adolescence, society must do everything in its power both to

further the establishment of a constructive peer culture and to see that every boy and girl makes some satisfactory emotional adjustment to it. The latter point is obvious since we can see all around us the unhappy position of the deviant who is ostracized for so many years from the company of his fellows. The former point is becoming increasingly more important due to the "unprecedented amount of leisure time that [has become] available to the adolescent as a result of the diminution of farm chores and the postponement of gainful employment. (39) The need for guidance in leisure becomes apparent, when we witness the growth of spectator sports which "at best represent a shallow participation and little or no real development, either physical or mental, for those who participate." (39) The importance of training in physical skills, such as walking, running, dancing, and athletics, has been stressed by Harold Jones (11) who points out that awkwardness in these respects is a major source of ridicule and embarrassment. Bower* has found that popularity among 7th- and 9th-grade boys "was unrelated to intelligence, height, home ratings, or school achievement, but was significantly related to strength and to physical ability as measured by a series of track event tests." The failure of society to prepare youth adequately for enjoying the constructive use of leisure time is revealed even in a great city like New York where a startling number of adolescents not only do not participate in any athletic activity, but also belong to no organized social-recreational group and cultivate no personal hobby. (39)

The Role of the School in Adolescent Maturation and Mental Hygiene

"It is not enough for education to be concerned with the re-interpretation of the culture and with the intellectual development of the child; education is also concerned with the development of personality, with the problems of individual adjustment. And if the individual is to make a satisfactory adjustment to his culture, the school and other educational agencies in society must provide him with the concrete experiences which will develop in him the values, the motivations, the desires, the sensitivities, and the skills which his society demand of him." (28)

In the matter of value formation, opportunity must be provided for free acceptance and self-determination instead of authoritarian imposition of views. (23) Under no circumstances must agreement with the teacher be made the price of acceptance and approval. (23) The instructor should regard himself as more than an impersonal vehicle for the transmission of knowledge. Students who tend to accept values on the basis of personal satellization look to him as a sympathetic human being with whom they

* Cited by Harold E. Jones (11).

can identify emotionally, while other students who tend to incorporate values more on the basis of their objective validity look to him for intellectual stimulation and leadership, for clarity and critical analysis of ideas. It is far too late to start making students responsible for the direction of their education when they reach the graduate level of instruction; it should be recognized from the start that real learning occurs only when there is active participation, when students have actual experience with the reality to which concepts refer instead of merely mouthing what is spoon-fed to them. (23)

But the school can only play a role in mental hygiene if the child can be treated as an individual. In our present educational system, he is only a member of a large class and is handled as if his problems, his capacities, his methods of learning, his goals were the same as those of every other child. To receive any specialized attention, he must either be grossly retarded in one of the educational skills or mentally deficient. The goal of individualized education requires more than increasing the number of teachers. It means finding teachers who are inspired with the ideal of imparting learning factors for growth, who regard teaching as a challenging assignment in personality development rather than as the fulfillment of a chore by means of which they earn their bread.

The school can also help counteract the lack of integration that adds to the discontinuities present in our various training institutions. (22) This requires not only an integrated view of the various studies within the school curriculum, but also an attempt to have these studies mirror a living reality instead of a glorified academic version of how things are ideally intended to be. "The school also has a function to perform as an agency of social direction, as a means of modifying the culture; it has a role to play in social transition." (28) This means that it can co-ordinate the guidance functions of the different training agencies by helping parents improve home conditions and by taking the initiative in "improving community life as it relates to growing boys and girls." (6) The work-study programs which have been developed by many educational institutions are a significant step in the direction of a realistically and vocationally oriented education. One of the most disheartening experiences that college graduates have to face is the fact that at twenty-two years of age they are less prepared to earn a living and actually have less earning capacity without further training than a commercial-school graduate. Is it any wonder then that youth is becoming disillusioned in an educational system which leads nowhere as far as the goal of emancipation is concerned?

The question has frequently been raised as to the advisability of arranging classes according to the age of adolescent maturation rather than by the present method of chronological age. While this might facilitate emotional and social adjustment and make possible a more homogenous program of social activities, it would seriously interfere with the instructional program, since it has been shown that mental growth is more highly correlated with chronological than with maturational age. (14) It might be possible to work out a compromise solution which satisfies both these requirements somewhat.

Education of Parents and Teachers

The importance of treating the adolescent's immediate environment—his home and his school—in every case of psychological disturbance has already been stressed. In fact, as Rotenberg (38) has shown, there is a close correlation between treatment outcome in the child and improvement in the parent. And while there are many inherent difficulties in the matter of parent education, it is still true that a great deal can be accomplished, especially in those cases where faulty parental attitudes are attributable to lack of knowledge and insight rather than to emotional factors. If parents could only be made to give more time and thought to the problems of growth and development, considerable progress towards reducing adolescent tensions could be made. (6) As it is, the improvement in adolescent behavior which often follows from merely interpreting the adolescent to his parents and teachers is truly astounding. While there are many basic reasons for parent-youth conflict, there is no doubt but that the presence or absence of tolerance and understanding is the differential factor which makes a given relationship either tolerable and confidential or continuously explosive and acrimonious.

Some General Principles of Guidance: Conclusions

Although some thirty-five years have elapsed since the birth of the child guidance movement and although child guidance centers have sprung up in nearly all of the major cities of our nation, we have barely scratched the surface insofar as providing both the educational and clinical services required for the task confronting us. Just how much progress still remains to be made is demonstrated by the situation that exists in New York City, where the mental hygiene facilities available for adolescents are highly inadequate.

By way of concluding this section on mental hygiene, a brief listing will be made of some general principles of adolescent guidance which have not been considered under more specific headings:

1. While avoiding useless and unnecessary frustration, the aim of guidance is not to "eliminate problems, but rather to help the individual find a way to conquer them with some success. . . . There is little growth to be gained in coping with overwhelming odds or with factors far beyond one's control." (39)

2. It is important to adjust satisfactorily to a current reality, even if it is inconsistent, and far from what it could or might be. Even while endeavoring to change them, it is necessary to recognize established laws and customs, irritational or otherwise. The adolescent must be prepared "for the kind of world he is apt to face, not the kind adults wish existed but as yet have been unable to create. . . . [To do otherwise] is to invite him to choose a life of continual unadjustment." (39) This does not imply that the *status quo* must be accepted for what it is, but rather that a mature attitude towards social change be adopted, an attitude that does not "encourage the adolescent to batter his head against the wall of custom simply because these customs are inconsistent." (39)

3. This certain minimal and desirable degree of conformity to social custom, however, is still a far cry from advocating a policy of "hunting with the hounds." Adolescents must be taught to express and courageously defend their moral principles. It is the duty of counselors to help youth formulate and verbalize a moral code and a guiding philosophy of life which give meaning, purpose, and integration to scattered goals and activities. (26) As previously suggested, the cornerstones of such a philosophy might very well be self-realization and social usefulness instead of money, power, and position.

4. Whatever personal values an individual incorporates, he must also accept certain common values and loyalties which will enable him to adjust to the demands and the traditions of a democratic society. (26)

5. The study of Havighurst *et al* (24) has made it clear that "The ideals of youth [are influenced] as much or more through the presence and behavior of teachers, clergy, and youth group leaders as through their verbal teachings." It is unwise, therefore, to minimize the instructional significance of personal example.

Just because adolescence is a transitional period in personality development—and like all eras of transition presents certain specific, transitory, and self-limited problems in adjustment—nothing is more important in the guidance of adolescents than maintaining a proper sense of perspective. As Gardner has said: "Adolescents are not a strictly isolatable group with problems particular to them alone—as a race apart—but, rather [are] beset by

tasks in mental health strikingly similar to those at all age levels. It is only that the new demands for final adult status lend to the trial-and-error aspects and to the many varied but nonetheless normal phases of adolescent behavior—its bizarre, unpredictable, and . . . worrisome characteristics. My main therapeutic approach to the parents of adolescents—my main treatment, advice, and prescription to them in the face of such behavior—is the tried-and-true phrase of the men of the ancient church who, when beset by the unpredictable and the seemingly uncontrollable, comforted themselves and one another with the words, 'It will pass. It will pass.' (18)

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ASCD MAKES FINAL CONVENTION PLANS

"Mental Health for Better Living" has been selected as the theme for the national convention of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development to be held at Denver, Colorado, February 12-15. The association is a department of NEA. A convention feature will be the presentation of the 1950 yearbook which will deal with the general field of mental health. Keynoting the meeting at the opening session on February 12 will be William C. Menninger, author and general secretary of the Menninger Foundation. Other highlights will include presentation of "Meet the West" by the Denver schools; a luncheon address by James G. Patton, president of the National Farmers Union; and extensive exhibits of curriculum bulletins and materials of instruction. Work of the convention will be accomplished through 35 study groups meeting to consider current educational problems, and open planning sessions for members will be held by ASCD committees. A post-convention conference will be sponsored by the University of Denver. Further convention information, pre-registration material, and a copy of the program and housing blanks may be obtained from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C.

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A Dutch Teacher Sees American High Schools

DR. GEERT WIELENGA

Dr. Wielenga is Teacher of Mathematics in the Gereformeerd Gymnasium (High School) and Lecturer at Vrije Universiteit, Amsterdam, Holland. He was one of the teachers from a war-devastated country whose visit to this country was made possible by the contributions of American teachers to the Overseas Teachers Relief Fund of the National Education Association. His four-month visit was jointly sponsored by the NEA and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. His visitation included 40 high schools, and 10 universities and colleges in 13 states from coast to coast. He also attended the 33rd Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in Chicago, Illinois.—*The Editor.*

WHAT do you think about our American high schools? Many people asked me this question during my stay in your country. This is indeed a \$64 question and anything but easy to answer offhand; so mostly I had to evade the reply. But now, after having had the time to ponder on it, I am very glad to get the opportunity to reply to it.

I should like, however, to stress some points beforehand. First, that I am fully aware that an acquaintance of three months does not give one the right to make strong statements about any matter and that, in particular, visiting only a restricted number of schools in larger cities ought to make me very cautious in giving my opinion about the American secondary-school system. So I will try to be careful, but yet I know that in all probability some of the things I write down here will be wrong. That takes me to my second point. If in the following I make faulty remarks or generalizations (perhaps by not knowing the background of the matter or by some error in reasoning), I should consider it a favor if the reader will take the trouble to point this out to me. After all, I came to the United States of America to get a better understanding of the educational system, and I will appreciate any help to obtain the right view. I trust the National Association of Secondary-School Principals will forward any letters to me.

There is a great difference between our secondary educational system and the American high school. So it was of first importance to me to get

a true insight in the objectives you set yourselves and in the motives lying behind your system. The most important motive in the mind of the Americans, I think, is to give all young people equal opportunity to develop their personality in the best way possible and to gather the knowledge necessary to make a success of their life, now and in the future. Next to it comes the objective to teach all American youth democracy, not only as a political system, but, above all things, as a way of life.

Both aims mentioned are closely interrelated, perhaps they are substantially the same. But the second way of presenting the basic objective makes especially clear the urgent need behind these very ends. I saw only a glimpse of the problems you have to face in your big cities (I did not visit the South) in connection with the great diversity in your population. But I saw enough to gather that the great variety in cultural backgrounds and modes of life of so many different races tends to create tensions that may become dangerous.

So I can understand that it is an absolute necessity for American youth to practice the art of living together before they are contaminated by adult intolerance. And I can see your point not to strive after the scholastic achievements as your first objectives as we do (too much, alas!). That is important for it guarded me from looking down on the high school, as many Europeans are apt to do, measuring it with inapt standards.

LIVING DEMOCRATICALLY

From what I saw in the schools I visited, I think I can truly say that the American high schools are doing a great job in this matter of teaching youth to live democratically and that they are really on their way to achieve their end. In many a student council, for instance, I saw a considerable percentage of Negroes, sometimes larger than the percentage of Negro-school population. It shows that you are getting somewhere and that American youth, in this matter at least, is ahead of the adults.

The pursuit of these aims requires the comprehensive high school and the elective system. And an essential feature of these is, furthermore, a good guidance system. So I think I can see the reason of the traits in which the American school system differs most from our own.

Perhaps it is not proper to speak about guidance-system in singular. I encountered some considerable variety in it: guidance based on home rooms and organized without them; home rooms made as homogenous as possible and home rooms that were cross sections of the whole school population; guidance founded on an elaborate testing program or practically without any testing; and so on.

But I cannot discuss these different techniques here. Anyhow, the essential is not the technique but the personality and ability of the counselor. The guidance problem is not a mechanical problem and not a question of administering and scoring tests and making profiles, but, essentially, it is a problem of understanding youth, of gaining an insight in the personality of the youngster. For scholastic and occupational adjustment and achievement are first of all dependent on will power and other personality traits. If you know anything about our secondary education, you will understand why I can truly state that I envy you in your guidance system!

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

But I see some difficulties and dangers, too, although it may be they only exist in my fancy; I am, after all, an outsider! It struck me, for instance, that most of the attention and the time in many a guidance program were spent on the vocational side of the problem and far less on the educational aspect. I mean to say that, according to my impressions, much more time was given to acquaint the pupils with possibilities in connection with potential jobs in the distant future than perhaps was justified. It is an important thing, I grant, for a boy or girl to know something about his or her own abilities and interests and the possibilities for them in society. It makes for better total adjustment, too, for pupils to have more or less clear notions about their aims of life. But I doubt if it is so important that it is necessary for them to study this field of vocational opportunities so much in detail, and sometimes more than once in their high-school life.

I concede, too, that all counselors are overburdened and that, therefore, they have sometimes to take this easy way, for the easiest way it is. But it is a pity that for that reason the already too strong idea, that the school has to take aim in the first place on the future jobs of the pupils, gains in strength. That is too narrow a point of view in my opinion. The school has the task to develop the personality of the pupil and to make it as rich as possible. The future of the pupil is not only to be a laborer, a businessman, or a professional, but also to be a man or a woman with some leisure time (as we hope) to spend and some responsibilities (to vote!). The school has to teach such a way of life that the pupil can be as happy as possible individually and can contribute as much as possible to society.

So much more time has to be devoted to educational guidance. I mean, by that, the planning of the individual pattern of courses to be taken—and this not only with a view to the pupil's future job, but also with a view to his present needs (school adjustment) and especially in view of the whole of his abilities, talents, and powers.

I suspect that many pupils go by the idea: Why should I learn French or German or mathematics if I have no need of them in my future job in business or as a doctor? The answer is a simple one: because it will enrich your personal life, because it will open up for you a large field of culture and literature, because it will show you some perspectives on ways of thinking you would not have dreamt of otherwise, because it will show you some ways of enjoying your leisure time outside the movies and the television by reading or doing something really worth while. American parents wish their offspring to spend a happy time in school. That is nice of them, but the school ought to teach them that there is happiness, too, in working hard and achieving something of value.

ONE ELECTIVE SYSTEM

This takes me to one of my main points, one of the most obvious dangers of the comprehensive high school and the elective system. The overburdened counselor (and teacher, too) only gives her attention to the lower and perhaps to the middle group. The pupil with A's and B's does not get any attention for he is not a problem. But he is! With a vengeance. If we (for we over here have to cope with the same problem) don't prod him on, don't guide him to the highest attainable paths, he will get a wrong view on life. He will learn to loaf and won't get the idea that great abilities impose great obligations upon him. Besides, we undernourish him mentally so that he cannot develop to his full capacity. And that is a pity, both to himself and to the community.

I admit that the old ideal of a broad education led in former times (and leads still) to an excessive stuffing up of the pupils with a lot of nonsense. But that does not alter the fact that pupils with great capacities have a right (and the duty to themselves and society) to learn as much as possible. Knowledge outside the narrow field of one's occupation is not useless even for that occupation, for it often will make it possible to see connections that are fruitful and that nobody else sees. All the great inventions and discoveries in science were in the nature of making such connections. But you cannot see them if you do not know anything outside of your own province. Moreover, anybody will agree that having interests in more than one direction tends to enrich your life. But the same holds good here; you cannot have an interest in something without knowing anything about it.

So the bright pupils are a great problem, indeed, worthy of your special attention. It is not easy to urge them on to do their utmost when they can get into college or in any case be graduated from high school at their leisure. They have need not so much of more courses as of more difficult

courses, which take them farther into the field concerned, which teach them to read more difficult French or speak it more fluently, which give them an insight into calculus or into the possibility of nonEuclidean geometry.

TEACHER PREPARATION

But then the school has need of more good counselors with a gift of leadership and of many more well-trained teachers. For to give a bright youngster all he can take, you have to be a master yourself in your subject. That is one reason why I think that it would be a good thing for the American high school if the master's degree were required for qualification as a teacher. There is a danger in this. I can see it only too well being a Dutch teacher. For in our country, the one and only qualification for teaching a subject in an academic-preparatory secondary school is having a master's degree in that subject. I am speaking in general, of course, as there are exceptions. It follows, however, that you can teach here without having any knowledge about psychology and the techniques of teaching. Of course, it is inconceivable to suggest to you to put the clock back as far as that. But even if one does not make it the only qualification, the objection still remains—that requiring a master's degree with a major in the subject concerned tends to strengthen the subject-centered set of mind in the teacher. I do not think, nevertheless, that this is a grave danger if the teacher's training is not too much specialized and if it includes a proper amount of psychology and pedagogy. And it has many advantages. It would raise the social status of the teacher, and it certainly should raise her salary.

The raising of the standards of qualification, however, is desirable not only in regard to the gifted pupils. I got the impression that a favorite teaching technique in America is class-discussion, with or without a panel. Now at the high-school age level, the teacher still has to be the real inspiration, the real pushing power of the class, even if she keeps in the background. Because without her suggestive leadership, as I often observed, the discussion declines to an exchange of mere opinions leading nowhere. The pupils have to learn something from a discussion, something about the topic concerned, but, above all, something about the method of problem solving. And the first thing in this is to be critical, not to take opinions (especially your own) on face value; that is, to take responsibility for your statements. Without the help of a teacher with superior knowledge, who can criticize profoundly, the class discussion tends to teach them just the reverse. And I often got the impression that the teacher did *not* know more about the subject matter discussed than the youngsters themselves—a result of a too superficial education! But a condition would be better pay; for, with-

out that, nobody can think about raising the requirements for teaching in a high school. Besides this, better pay would do something to restore the balance between women and men teachers. And that would be a good thing, too, for a well-balanced education of this age group. I think that American secondary education would profit hugely if some fewer dollars were spent on buildings and some more on salaries. A million-dollar plant is a nice thing to have for a school, but a far better thing would be a well-paid, well-trained, and not over-burdened faculty—that is a fact!

SEX EDUCATION

There is another point that struck me. I think it is a typical example of the American way of doing things. When you see a fault or a need—you go at it! It is a grand way and made for American greatness in past and present. But it can be overdone, it can become a headlong plunge running on into the other extreme. And I fear this is the case in the matter of sex education contained in "Family Living" and other courses.

There certainly is a need for it. When one sees what American youth encounters in many broken homes and in your press, literature, movies, radio, and so on, there is indeed an urgent need of enlightening. Moreover, the secrecy of former times did no doubt much damage and ought to be abolished. But is it a task for the school? Is there not a possibility of damage, too, in the present direct approach sometimes practiced?

What I mean is this: the films and other visual aids I saw were clear and decent attempts to help youth to get a better understanding in this matter. But they only present the physiological side of the problem; and that is inevitable for it is in the very nature of these things. So there is the very important task for the teacher to present or rather to stress the moral side of it. It is true it is very difficult, if possible at all, to broach this delicate spiritual problem in a class (sometimes coed) of about thirty youngsters. I cannot blame the teacher if she chooses the easy way out by not mentioning it, only discussing the movie. But it is not the right way.

The intention is evidently to keep this matter in an unemotional, cold, and clean scientific atmosphere. That is a worthy aim, perhaps attainable by a few wise teachers with great moral leadership, but easier and better and far more natural to achieve if treated in an unobtrusive way as an accessory matter in a biology course. Putting it in the limelight, however, by making it an important part of a special course and then treating it mainly on the physiological level seems to me all wrong.

For the basis of human sex, life ought to be love. And with love I don't mean the sentimental, exalted, unreal thing youth sees in the movies or hears

crooning out of the radio set; nor do I mean the infatuation which chills off after the first clash of personalities. I mean the real thing that makes one know one's responsibility to the other one, that can make sacrifices and still lasts even after one year of matrimony. Only this love raises sex above the animal level; it can make it beautiful and good. So leaving this most important factor out of the picture, nay, omitting to put it in the *centre* is not merely an omission, but turns the whole thing all wrong.

I cannot see the use of teaching pupils all kinds of particulars about the dimensions, *etc.*, of the human foetus in the first or second month. They can learn as properly the dental formula of the fox. When sometime in the future they expect their first baby, they will look it up and then it is experience-centered learning based on interest.

And I do see the danger of the instruction on "dating" resulting in a list on the blackboard of the reasons for "necking" during this pastime. It arouses desire, it is so exciting, it is natural, everyone does it, they (the boys or the girls?) seem to expect it, *etc.* What good do the pupils learn from that if you don't stress the point that there are far more urgent reasons for *not* doing it?—the main reason being that the teen-ager can hardly experience that mature and lasting love, which only can raise sex to a morally justified level.

Learning by doing is a dangerous slogan in this area, mined with so many explosives. The reaction against the fateful habit of former times to treat these matters in secret must not lead to forgetting that they are sacred. Now, perhaps many will not agree with this, but that would prove that it is extremely difficult, if possible at all, to deal with them in a public school because it is evidently linked up with one's fundamental outlook on life.

That is why the solving of this problem belongs properly and naturally to the domain of the parents. In one of the discussion groups of the thirty-third Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the issue was: "How Can Youth Be Educated for Home and Family Life." My answer would be, I think, in accord with modern educational theory: "by *living* a real family life at home." Would that be possible in America today? I do not know how serious the situation is; according to some speakers I heard in Chicago, it seems pretty bad. So perhaps other institutions have to lend a hand, the Church first and the public school only at the last.

I think that the approach to family-life education which I raised some objections against is connected with a more fundamental matter. I mean the basic belief one finds among many American educational philosophers that *all* problems can best be solved by the so-called scientific method. I found

this quotation of Dewey mentioned somewhere: "Only as a living spirit of dealing with all subjects, ingrained in all the procedures of learning, can science create the values inherent in it as a method." And Bode calls the power to think the educational kingdom of Heaven.

As a teacher of mathematics and science myself, you may be sure that I do not underrate this power and do my utmost to teach my pupils this method in such a way that they transfer it to as many fields of problems as possible. For clear thinking is indeed very important to disentangle many kinds of issues in science and in life. But I try to teach them, too, that the most important truths of all go by way of our hearts and not *via* the head to the heart. That is to say the scientific method is without value just when the core of our existence is at stake. I am not sure about it, but it seems to me that American education, though it abolished the mainly intellectual ideals of olden times, has for all that the tendency to fall into a more extreme intellectualism than was ever before customary by making scientific method its god.

SEEING THE GOOD

But I am afraid that you have got a wrong idea about my impressions of American high schools when (if?) you have read all the preceding pages. I have stressed my criticisms too much. My excuse is that, when one reviews a foreign system, it comes more or less natural to be critical and to dwell too long on the differences of opinion. For that matter, it has no sense only to pat the other one on his back telling him how wonderful he is and keeping your critique back. But it is necessary to restore the balance now, for it is decidedly not true that I see only the black spots in the American system. On the contrary, there are many things in it I greatly admire. I even envy and wish we could copy. There are some I would not like to adopt, but I can understand why you (have to) do them in your way; and there are merely a few about which I am critical.

I have already discussed the last. Of the first, I will mention only the most outstanding.

First of them is the spirit of the staff and faculty, the diligence and ardour they (teachers and administration) put into their professional duties. Most of them are really intent upon doing their work as well as possible; that is, in such a way that they will not only give instruction in some subject but also try to educate. And as they are openminded enough to realize that they have not achieved the ideal yet, they are constantly searching for improvement. Especially this openmindedness, this experimental attitude expressing itself in workshops and committees for curriculum planning and

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the study of teaching techniques, have greatly impressed me. There again is an example of the American spirit I mentioned already: if you see a need—go for it!

Further, the friendly relation between teachers and pupils, which shows how, in general, the American teacher has the confidence of her pupils. With this, the most important condition for a fruitful education is fulfilled. There will be many exceptions to this rule; I am aware of that. I certainly did not bring home with me a mental picture of a class looking up with dog-like devotion to an incarnate ideal, their teacher—I have seen too much of your sprightly youngsters! But I have also seen several times with silent admiration how a principal or a sponsor managed his student counsel—not with vetoes, nor in an artful way, but speaking his mind frankly and reasonably and getting back frank and reasonable replies, giving confidence and evidently receiving trust. So I think I can truly state that the American youth views his teacher not as a sponsor, nor even as a distant authority, but as a trustworthy friend—and that is the best testimonial it is possible to have.

Finally, there is the freedom you give your pupils and the co-operative spirit this creates. I commended already your student councils in operation. Besides, I was told that comparatively very few discipline problems occurred. That is really an achievement in such huge schools. I admit that many outsiders (in America) merely laughed at me when I mentioned the orderly behavior of the pupils in school. But I saw with my own eyes how, between periods, hundreds and at times thousands of lively boys and girls passed through the corridors with a lot of noise but without disorder. This proves that, as your object is to teach them a responsible way of life, you certainly are making progress—at least inside the schools!

LASTING IMPRESSIONS

I should like to end in a more personal tone. Many people in the United States of America and over here have asked me about the things that struck me most in America in general. Perhaps it will interest you, too. In any case, it will give me the opportunity to end with something I really like to say in public to all my kind hosts.

The grandest sight I saw was looking up to the great bastions of the Grand Canyon from Plateau Point at the edge of the inner gorge with the thunder of the Colorado River far down below in my ears.

The funniest sight, by far, was looking down from the steps of St. Patrick's on the Easter Parade on 5th Avenue. It still intrigues me; does the New Yorker take this really serious or doesn't he?

The most beautiful sight? I don't know—I saw so many in your beautiful country. But perhaps it was in San Francisco, the view from the place my proud host showed me as the spot on which he should like to build his house.

The most beautiful man-made things? Not your Washington buildings, however impressive they may be, for they are too much Greek and too little American; but your bridges in New York and San Francisco. They are really beautiful, being a true expression of the American creative spirit.

My happiest moment? Hearing the New York Philharmonic playing the third movement in Beethoven's Symphony in G in Carnegie Hall.

And what is my most striking impression on the whole? Yes, I would like to answer that question especially, but don't call me a diplomat as some of you did, for I mean it seriously. The most striking impression is the kindness, the hospitality of the American people—the friendly way in which without overdoing it, you meet a foreigner visiting your school—and causing you a lot of trouble; the way you put him at ease, make him feel at home, and try to make things agreeable for him—that really struck me most and will last longest in my memory!

TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT OF YOUTH

The latest figures show that about 700,000 children 14 and 15 years of age and 1,300,000 of 16 and 17 years are employed full or part time in industry and agriculture, according to recent census estimates cited in the *Annual Report of the National Child Labor Committee*. The number has remained high, following the post-war drop from 3,000,000 to 2,000,000 because jobs for this age group have not been lacking until recently. Now young people are finding it harder to obtain jobs. In October, 1949, there were nearly 200,000 unemployed 16- and 17-year-olds as compared with 90,000 in October, 1948.

Census figures show that nearly 200,000 of the young workers under 16 are not attending school. This is evidence of the weakness of both child labor laws and school attendance laws—or of their enforcement. Only 19 states as yet prohibit the employment of children under 16 years during school hours. Similarly, although all states have set the compulsory attendance age at 16 years or higher, only 16 permit no exceptions for employment, and many have sweeping exemptions for agricultural work or for children who have completed the eighth grade. Beyond age 16, it is not legal regulation but school holding power that is weak. Here we get the drop-outs. Nearly one and a quarter million 16- and 17-year-olds are not enrolled in school, 28 per cent of the population of this age group. Since our goal for education should be at least a high-school education for every child and since it is not generally considered desirable to make school attendance compulsory to 18, the solution to the drop-out problem must come through changes in our high-school programs to make them more meaningful to more students.

Some Comparisons Between American and English Education

UVEDALE LAMBERT

I SHALL never forget my first experience of American high-school education. A vast crowd of teachers, very distinguished and beautifully dressed, as it seemed to me accustomed to the comparative shabbiness of postwar England, met from all over Denver to greet their new superintendent. He began, "Never forget that the first job of a school is to instruct..."

My heart sank. Was the American educational ideal to "instruct?" Didn't they understand the fundamental difference between instruction, the pushing of knowledge down a child's throat, and education—the nourishing of the tender plant of youthful character?

But I soon discovered my mistake, just a difference of words across the Atlantic. It is so much better to realize one is a foreigner and then to enjoy finding so much in common.

Everything I say is said with the greatest diffidence, because I am well aware that there are aspects of American education which I have probably misunderstood and traditions which I don't allow for (I am not referring only to "pép assemblies"). Things that may seem critical to you, Americans, please take against a background of the profoundest admiration for the very great ideal you have and the fine job which is being done in so many schools, and, may I add, against a background of humble gratitude for the privilege of being allowed to work with American teachers this year.

The Educational Authorities of London, England, are faced with a large rebuilding program, as a result of the war. Their scheme is to build big units, but many teachers are inclined to think this undesirable. As the building program is inevitably held up by restrictions in England, this has enabled some teachers who have had no actual experience of large school units to go and see for themselves how they work. Mr. Uvedale Lambert is the Senior English Master at a London County Council secondary school and is in America for a year studying American methods.

ORGANIZATION OF ENGLISH EDUCATION

Perhaps it is best to begin by explaining very briefly the organization of English education. The Act of 1945 enforces the schooling of children from the age of five to sixteen. This means, for the vast majority, a co-educational elementary school from five to eleven and a nonco-educational secondary school from eleven to sixteen. I prefer your co-educational high schools. At sixteen, English children may pass the General School examination which allows them to stay at school a further two years and sit for the Higher School examination, which, if they pass, enables them to go to the University at public expense. (Some 80 per cent of our university students are nonfee payers.)

The policy is now to have three types of high school: the "Grammar" for the academically inclined, the "Technical" for the technically inclined, and the "Modern" for those who fall between those categories. Within our high schools, the curriculum up to sixteen is narrower than yours; students have little choice of courses. But after General School age, the 50 per cent or so, who stay on at school, have freedom of choice to specialize. It appears that in America not much classical literature is taught until senior high school, (and then many have only a half year of such study) and there is emphasis on speaking rather than on writing the language. In England, we certainly do not do such a good job in the matter of training to speak, but I think it is fair to say that through classical literature we do awaken the student's imagination and ability to write more thoroughly. College preparation with us, therefore, involves studying, say two Shakespeare plays and the 1820 poems of Keats and the nineteenth century novel and an eighteenth century anthology rather than spelling, punctuation, grammar, and the use of words.

Almost all English schools have a "house" system. This means that a youngster is assigned to a "house" or division of the school on arrival, and that is his unit for games and many other activities during his school career. In my London school, there are 500 students and five "houses." Each "house" has a housemaster and three tutors or assistants, who amongst them divide the 100 boys in the "house" when, after house meetings on Friday afternoons (where the "house" under its elected leaders discusses its affairs), twenty-five counseles sit in a classroom doing homework and are available, individually or collectively, for counseling.

This brings me to the question of team games, on which in England maybe we lay too much stress. Apart from gymnasium, I find that some

five per cent of the students in America go out for school organized games; in England you would find 99 per cent have organized games as well as gymnasium in school time at the taxpayers' expense. Every afternoon a group of boys will go—in my case a twenty-minute train journey—to play football or cricket. Likewise, the girls will go to basketball, net ball, lacrosse, or hockey. The "house" system gives scope for intramural games of every kind. We consider this an important side of a child's development, and remarks about a child's co-operation in team games often are found on the terminal report.

Furthermore, an increasing number of schools have a school camp during the summer term. In the school where I teach, three members of the faculty take a group of sixty boys during school to a country district seventy miles from London and live under canvas with them, cooking on open fires and doing work of a very practical nature; for instance, geology, botany, land utilization, social surveys, and studying farming or ancient buildings. Even mathematics becomes practical with budgeting, accounting, and surveying. We reckon that we learn more about a child and, therefore, can be of more use to him in one week in camp than in the whole school year. It is this sort of activity which enables us to write a far more detailed personal report on a child's character development than is possible in many schools here in America. The only times in an English school that I sign my name are three times a year on the reports of my homeroom class and my counselees. I think we should feel in England that to grade a student A-E on English literature, or psychology, or modeling was not a satisfactory guide to his progress. It does not really matter whether he knows any geometry or Spanish or even whether she cooks well, but in what ways his or her character is developing.

DEMOCRACY IN THE SCHOOL

There are many lines in which your education is way ahead of ours, and we have much to learn. The fact that your education is slower than ours, that you can and do take more time is, in my humble opinion, a real advantage. Students of sixteen in England are having to learn what students in America will not learn until eighteen. I would not presume to say that the best use is always made of the extra time, but it certainly gives you a greater freedom of individual choice and variety of courses. The economic pressure is so heavy on our education. For national survival, we must train thoroughly and quickly all the best material we have. We cannot afford to let high IQ's slip through the net. You can allow the freedom of

choosing not to work at all. How long the pressure of world leadership or its ghastly alternative of another war will permit you this liberty, only a rash man would dare to predict.

Then, in health education you are miles ahead of anything I have seen in England. Your social training is admirable. You really do turn out students who fit into the social structure they find around them. Their manners are good, generally speaking, because they are the frank and sincere expression of a socially conscious and unselfish child. Discipline is good, fundamentally, because it is self-imposed by the individual. I tremble to think what would happen if an English school had as few sanctions as there are in schools in America. But I don't think the schools I have seen teach the students how to govern. I have yet to see student government as we understand it. There is excellent experience of the organization of democracy—nominations, petitions, balloting, electing of "Queens" and "Kings," besides school officers. But the standard always seems to be "personality," which I cannot distinguish from Webster's definition of "popularity." The elected don't, and don't wish to, govern or control, for fear of losing popularity. There is danger here. This is the road to the bane of democracy—irresponsible government. I wonder whether you sufficiently inculcate a sense of responsibility. We don't, I know, in England.

But may I venture to suggest what I believe to be your greatest dangers in education? It is being led astray by those two attractive and plausible imposters—Quantity and Equality.

It is not growing like a tree
In bulk, doth make men better be
Or standing long an oak, three hundred year
To fall a log at last, dry, bald, and sere.

Size, numbers, quantity are not in themselves virtues. They are not an ideal for any educator, though they may be for an administrator. It is cheaper in dollars to mass-produce; but an educator knows it is more expensive in human souls.

I honestly believe that nine out of ten of your problems are irritated and aggravated out of all proportion, if not actually created, by size. Who can, with his hand on his heart, claim to be able to counsel seventy students? Articulation would hardly exist as a problem with smaller numbers for longer periods. All this office work, which so often flows even through classroom doors, would pale into insignificance. The whole student body could meet as a corporate entity in assembly. I must confess I have not yet met a teacher who was in favour of large educational units.

EQUALITY IN THE SCHOOL

And then that dry, bald, sere log of equality—at root, a noble and true ideal, but so often nowadays “twisted by knaves to make a trap for fools.” American education is too ideally democratic. There is a tendency, so right and good in a way, to treat everyone the same. At times, however, there is a streak of maudlin sentimentality, a conspiracy not to expect too much of students, to talk down to them, especially in assembly programs, not to let them face the unfairness and hardness of the world. I know the dangers of defeatism and inhibitions and disillusion, but the way to avoid these giants is to provide an education to suit the less gifted, not to water down the diet of the strong. The truth is that the Almighty is not an ideal democrat, and He did not in fact issue an equal IQ to all His creatures, any more than He made them all platinum blonds. We may regret that He didn’t, but we shall waste less time if we face the fact that He made everyone different and expects each one to fulfill his own ability. As far as Christianity is concerned, and that is the mother of our democratic ideal, we are not only “called to be saints” but able to be saints.

Quality is so much more important than equality, as harmony is greater than unison. Quality represents the best that we are, each one, able to attain. That is what enriches the life of a nation. Equality is comparatively easy to attain; it’s a low level and not worth attaining. It may satisfy the ignorant and silence criticism, but it is of no value now and of no significance for the future. The only result of achieving it now would be the creation of a new inequality, the stupid injustice of handicapping the intelligent.

You have in this country a tremendously noble ideal of spreading higher education far and wide. And you are realizing your ideal. It is an inspiring achievement, without parallel in the history of the world. You will not betray your ideal and allow it to be watered down by a false sense of equality or overwhelmed by a sheer weight of quantity.

For education is something sensitive, personal, and of the interior life. It is a delicate plant which needs personal attention with a trowel and not indiscriminate tearing up by a steam plough. It is a student’s and a man’s own doing. It is something which happens to him because of, or (let’s be honest), in spite of, teaching. You cannot really teach democracy or culture, or successful married life. Teaching is a very limited weapon. All these things may arise because of good teaching, but they come, if at all, not really from a unit of work but from a teacher; not from a textbook, but from the infectious enthusiasm of a human soul.

NEED FOR DIFFERENT EMPHASES

We are making great strides with our teaching on both sides of the Atlantic. We do need to decide what are the best subjects to teach and how to teach them, and above all to know the individual on whom we are to practice. There is no lack of room for experiment. And we do agree sufficiently to differ profitably, for we all agree in a democratic country on the ultimate object; namely, the development of the whole human being. We have to help Mary Smith, with her high IQ and her great charm, make herself not into a good communist or fascist or any other "good" preconceived idea, but into the best Mary Smith she is capable of being. And poor John Brown, with his lame leg and his poor stupid brain, into the best John Brown he can be, and to our surprise he may become more of a "person" than clever Mary Smith.

To do this, we dare not avoid the responsibility of drawing out their mental ability, their physical powers, their social sense, and their spiritual awareness. English and Americans alike have not faced this last, but sooner or later they will have to. For education is the development of all these things. Education is what is left when Mary Smith and John Brown have forgotten all the geometry, social science, and Shakespeare they have ever learned, and even how to drive a car. It is not by chance that "discipline" has its roots in the Greek word for learning. There is no short cut to education and there is no "endless belt." Each individual has to walk the long, hard road of "discipline" in all those four spheres in search of that despised virtue of humility, which has kept the really great learners all their lives. It was that man of encyclopaedic mind, Isaac Newton, who at the end of his life said he felt "like a little boy picking up pebbles on the beach of learning."

BUSINESS EDUCATORS TO MEET IN ATLANTIC CITY

"The Professionalization of Teacher Education" is the theme for the annual meeting of the National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions which will be held in Atlantic City, N. J., in connection with the Joint Meeting of the NEA United Business Education Association Divisions, February 24-25. The session on Friday, February 24, will begin at 10 a.m. with a general session open to members and guests.

Each UBEA division—NABTTI, Business Education Research Foundation, Business Education Administrators' Division, and the United States Chapter of the International Society for Business Education—will hold individual division meetings on Friday afternoon.

Air-Age Program

SARA KATHRYN FRAME

THIS descriptive story and the two that follow have been selected from a number of contributed articles in an informal curriculum study jointly sponsored by the Civil Aeronautics Administration and the American Council on Education under the direction of H. E. Mehrens, Chief, Aviation Education Division, Civil Aeronautics Administration. These descriptions are illustrative of ways in which teachers in the secondary school have used materials in acquainting youth with essential education in our air age and of obtaining a comprehensive understanding of the changing world in which we live. These learning projects are presented here to show that they are in general harmony with our main purposes of education; also, that these are additional ways in which common learnings activities and subject-matter fields in the secondary school may be highly motivated by a knowledge of the influence of the airplane in our lives.—THE EDITOR

THE SETTING

The group at the Washington Junior High School, Pasadena, California, participating in the Air Age program was a tenth-grade two-hour core class. The forty students enrolled in this class dealt with the subject matter of English and social studies. The unit of work for this particular course, as set up in the present curriculum, was entitled "Latin America and the Good Neighbor Policy—an experiment in improving international understanding." This area was a "natural" for an Air Age Unit, especially since the last class had just completed a study of global geography which led them to become aware of the interdependence of people and of the "shrinking world." The teaching technique used for this unit of work was the problem approach.

THE STORY

The film, *The Bridge*, was used to initiate the unit. From the discussion following the presentation of this film, various problems emerged. Any one of

Miss Frame is a tenth-grade core teacher in the Washington Junior High School, Pasadena, California. This city school system is organized on the 6-4-4 plan.

these could have formed the basis of work on the unit. Because of the nature of the film content, one of the problems which arose concerned the effect of air transportation upon trade and commerce with Latin American countries. This problem was assigned to a volunteer group of students as a committee project for further investigation and report to the class. The exact statement of the problem was the product of the students' thinking and took this form: "How Can South American Countries Most Effectively Solve Their Transportation Problems?"

The problem—After selecting the problem, the committee, through oral discussion led by the teacher, worked out four stages of procedure which they would follow as they undertook its solution. These four stages were as follows:

1. Analyze the problem, breaking it up into sub-problems and questions
2. Collect, evaluate, and organize data relating to these sub-problems
3. Propose tentative conclusions, generalizations, and courses of action
4. Present the findings of the committee in an effective manner to the class

The first step involved several activities. First, the committee had to be organized into a working group. A general chairman was selected by the group, whose responsibility it was to delegate certain responsibilities to other members, generally to "keep the ball rolling," to call meetings for evaluation when needed, and, finally, to report to and to work with the teacher. Other members of the committee looked to their chairman rather than to the teacher for leadership—leadership which they had delegated. A secretary was selected by the group whose duty it was to keep account of suggestions and assignments.

At this point the committee attempted, under the guidance of the teacher, to analyze the problem and to break it down. They came to realize the need for further extensive reading. This background reading was adequately done in materials readily available in the room. The books were: Brown, *Our Latin American Neighbors*; Cutright, *Latin America's Twenty Friendly Nations*; and Greenbie, *Good Neighbor Series*. Now, analysis of the problem on the basis of this broader understanding of background was easier. The following questions and sub-problems were the outgrowth of this analysis:

1. What are the geographical features existing in South America, and what effect do they have on all transportation there?
2. What health factors exist, and what effect will the airplane have on them?
3. What are the relative comparisons of cost, load, time, efficiency with respect to air, railroad, and water transportation?
4. How much money and equipment, men, and ideas does South America have available to meet these demands?
5. What kind of transportation can best fulfill her needs?

6. What is the distribution of raw materials, products, and people which will require transportation?
7. How can she gain what she needs to develop her transportation?
8. How can South America educate her people to "air-mindedness"?
9. What means of transportation actually exist now in South Americas (airlines in and out, steamship lines, trucking lines, animals)?
10. Can the United States help South America without causing conflict with other nations?
11. How well prepared are we to help her?
12. What has to be considered in choosing the proper means of transportation?
13. What is the attitude of the South American government towards United States flyers in their country?
14. What difficulties arise among airlines and different countries regarding policy?
15. What natural resources do South American countries have available for use in an aviation program?
16. How can they be developed?
17. Would private airlines or a military air-transport system be better to handle their cargo?
18. How can the airplane aid in promoting an international interchange of culture?

After developing this list of sub-problems, the committee decided to divide the tasks among individual members and sub-committees on a basis of interests, abilities, and special aptitudes. This was quickly accomplished.

Now the class was ready to attack the second step of their problem. Members of the committee had to determine the kinds and sources of information most appropriate to their particular aspect of the problem. The following sources were recognized: books; magazine articles; newspapers; movies; interviews; outside speakers; agencies such as the Civil Aeronautics Administration, commercial airlines, and Pan American Union. When individual work by members of the committee used these suitable sources and materials, such use constituted some of the homework of the student, but most of the work was done in the classroom or library under the guidance of the teacher. Interviews, however, were carried on by the students outside of school, and "on their own".

The interview technique was studied in the classroom. Initial telephone conversations were simulated in the classroom, with one student playing the part of the "interviewer" and another, the part of the person interviewed. The interview itself was then enacted the same way. When it came to "digging up" people in the community who would be of help to us, the students came through with knowledge about or acquaintance with the following: (1) a colored physician who had recently spent several years in South America, working on their health problems; (2) a former teacher in South America; (3) a businessman in Pasadena who buys and sells South American products;

(4) a former missionary in South America; (5) a former student in South America; and (6) a former oil driller in South America. The students set up the following interview schedule which also included the names of the students assigned to each interview.

Missionaries

1. How do the church schools compare with the public schools?
2. What is the dominant religion?
3. What is the reaction to conversion among nonchristians?
4. What about the living conditions in the interior and in cities?
5. What do you think they need in the way of transportation?

Physician

1. What are the sanitary conditions in South America?
2. What can be done to improve this situation?
3. Can the airplane be of service to this problem?
4. What medical facilities are available?
5. What is the attitude of the people towards the health problem?

Teacher

1. How do their schools compare to ours?
2. Is attendance compulsory; if so, for how long?
3. What is the illiteracy rate?
4. What is needed?
5. How could we be of help?
6. What means of educating the people to "airmindedness" could be used?

Businessman

1. What products does South America buy most?
2. Does a co-operative spirit exist in trade?
3. How are contacts made?
4. What products do we buy most?
5. What means of transportation do they use for the products?
6. Would the airplane save time and money in the long run?

Following the interviews, the students responsible reported their findings to the class. It was generally agreed that this was a most successful way of securing valuable information not available in any printed matter. As information was being gathered through interviews and other means, copious notes were taken, and occasional meetings of the entire committee were called to compare notes, to exchange ideas, to check on progress of all members, and to avoid unnecessary duplication of effort. A review of different methods of disseminating information led to the acceptance of the following forms: outlines; reports (oral and written); murals; cartoons; maps, charts, and graphs; short stories; dramatics skits; and radio programs.

The third step in the development of the problem proved to be the "rough-est." The matter of establishing tentative conclusions, generalizations, or rec-

ommendations required careful explanation by the teacher and considerable teacher guidance of the committee. In this instance, the class had never prior to the present project used the plan of procedure described. Actually, the conclusions and generalizations were the product of their own thinking, but the recommendations were, in great part, influenced by the thinking of others. Students' generalizations resulting from the completion of the project are listed below:

1. What the railroad has done for us, the airplane will do for South America
2. International understanding is the foundation for peace
3. A great lag exists between invention and its use for social improvement
4. There can never be complete freedom of the air
5. Ignorance breeds prejudice
6. Wise use of air transportation will probably be limited to carrying perishable and rare goods
7. Aviation has wiped out natural barriers as boundary lines
8. Aviation will cause shifts in population areas
9. Aviation will cause change in marketing centers
10. New standards of sanitation may be established through air travel
11. Government subsidy is necessary to make aviation a commercial success
12. Atmospheric and weather conditions affect navigation
13. The airplane is not the answer to all of South America's transportation problems

The committee made the following recommendations:

1. The United States, through a lend-lease arrangement, could send qualified men, materials, and equipment to South America to aid in developing her resources, constructing roads and airports, training pilots, and building a fleet of airplanes.
2. South American governments could issue government bonds to provide necessary funds to improve her sanitation conditions and her transportation deficiencies.
3. We could put the "Good Neighbor Policy" to work and provide South America with educational movies, radio programs, and teachers.
4. Students and adults in their school, business, and professional life here in the United States could give more study and recognition to the South American culture.

The fourth and last step in the problem was the most enjoyable, because students are naturally enthusiastic about displaying their work. The committee determined what they believed to be the most effective means of presenting their findings to the group. They decided upon these two forms of presentation:

1. An exhibit of visual classroom displays—maps, charts, pictures, reports, murals—with adequately written and/or oral description and explanation.
2. Presentation of mimeographed materials for the entire class—a summary of findings with basic supporting data. This turned out to be more of an at-

tractive scrap book than anything else, and yet it was packed full of important information and conclusions.

Preparation for the presentations required careful planning by the committee. It was necessary for the teacher to emphasize the importance of thorough preparation by each participant to insure maximum benefit for the class. The products resulting as the students arranged their findings in one or another form of presentation were accurate, colorful, thoughtful, artistic, and dramatic. This work was exhibited and brought forth much favorable comment from other students, teachers, and parent visitors. Among the items produced by the class were:

1. A map showing all existing air routes to and from South America
2. A map and chart showing needs for air transportation in South America
3. An impressionistic painting superimposed on a map of South America showing present types of transportation
4. A short story based on the attitude of South American people toward our pilots in their country
5. A diagram showing exact position of South American range stations
6. A chart showing the history of the progress of railroads and planes in South America
7. A radio script designed to be used as an example of educating the South American people to air-mindedness
8. An impressionistic painting depicting geographical barriers in South America
9. An outline of health problems and their solutions
10. A chart showing manpower, equipment, and money available in South America
11. A map showing location of resources and raw materials in South America
12. A map showing distribution of population in South America
13. An illustrated chart showing comparative costs, load, and time in relation to plane, boat, and railroad in South America
14. A map showing desirable type of transportation in a particular area through illustration superimposed on the map
15. A debate on "Nonscheduled Air Carriers Are Unfair Competition to Scheduled Air Carriers"
16. A panel discussion on whether commercial airlines or military aircraft should carry cargo
17. A poster showing what better transportation will mean to South America
18. A chart showing ten needs for an improved air transportation program and the actual costs of these ten needs
19. An article suggesting ways in which these needs and costs may be met
20. A report on "Flying Safety" showing the number of accidents in South America for one year, the number of injuries to personnel, the amount of damage to aircraft, the main causes of the accidents, and four suggestions to improve flying safety
21. Mural showing the events in the history of aviation in South America
22. Dramatization of a "control tower" scene

23. Chart showing by color and number the airways converging in Rio
24. Panel discussion on the economic changes occurring in South America
25. A play based on an international incident

APPRAISAL

Evaluation of the work of the committee was achieved through self-evaluation by the student, by the class, and by the teacher. An estimate of the results of the committee work in terms of benefit to the class was achieved through objective tests prepared and corrected by the committee itself.

To say that the experiment in Air Age Education was successful would be an understatement. Nevertheless, there were times when one wondered if it was all worth the extra time and effort the project demanded. However, in terms of results achieved, the teacher believed that the endless hours spent in preparing the program—i. e., the research, the gathering together of material, the setting of the stage before the program could be presented to the class—was well worth while. It was also believed that, without this preparation, the program would not have succeeded.

The class gained a great amount of knowledge, an awareness of the air age, and a new vision of the world about them; however, the most important gain was the gradual development of good attitudes and desirable, value patterns for life in an air age. Without realizing it, the students appeared to put democratic group interests above their own, recognizing their responsibility to their society by accepting roles of leadership and followership and by sharing their talents and making friends with members of different races.

Congress Delays Survey of School Construction Needs

The school-aid legislative measure—the School Construction Act—was pushed aside in the closing days of Congress when the House failed to take action on S2317 passed by the Senate on October 17. Congressman Cleveland M. Bailey (D, W. Va.), chairman of a House subcommittee on education, tried to bring the bill before the House on October 18, but his efforts were blocked. Similar efforts were made on the following day, but it was impossible to get immediate consideration due to lack of unanimous consent, and time ran out with the result that the bill will be carried over to this second session. The bill authorizes \$5,000,000 to assist the states to inventory existing school facilities, to survey the need for new construction, study local resources, and develop state building programs. State matching of Federal funds is required on a 50-50 basis.

Aviation in General Mathematics

MURIEL N. OLIVER

THE SETTING

THE aviation project which is described below has been a most challenging and completely gratifying teaching experience. It served to vitalize a subject which is oftentimes very dull and uninteresting. It provided a motivation for the study of mathematics which carried through the year under its own momentum because it was within the interests and experiences of the students.

In order to describe this project adequately, it is necessary first to acquaint the reader with the students who participated in the experiment. The class consisted of twenty ninth-grade boys—the subject, general mathematics. Ours is a three-year junior high school, with the program of study for the school planned to meet the individual needs of the pupils in so far as possible. In the ninth grade, students are given the opportunity to make a tentative plan of study for their entire secondary-school period. The general mathematics course is designed primarily for those students majoring in the field of industrial arts. However, many other students select the course because they anticipate a need for mathematics in their chosen field of study, or because they have not the ability to pursue higher mathematics. The general mathematics class consisted largely of industrial arts boys. These boys ranged in age from fourteen to sixteen years, and with I.Q.'s of from 75 to 116. They came from middle class, American homes, representative of the majority of homes in the city.

Concord, which is the capital of New Hampshire, has a population of approximately 28,000. It is quite typical of capital cities, but at the same time gives evidence of the New England village influence. Concord is not an industrial city. There is one large printing industry which employs approximately 1100. These workers together with those in the employ of the state comprise

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the two largest groups of employees. However, there are many who are employed in the smaller businesses besides the professional, agricultural, and laboring groups, all of whom contribute to the school population. The mathematics class represented a fairly accurate cross section of the school enrollment.

In spite of the fact that these boys, with possibly one or two exceptions, came from wholesome home environments and that they had enjoyed the opportunities of the average youngster, they were, as a group, considered difficult. They presented many problems to their teachers. They had not made favorable impressions upon their preceding teachers. Because of limited academic ability, difficult personality traits, and varied aptitudes, they had acquired a reputation for restlessness, lack of self control, and lack of sustained enthusiasm and interest. They definitely were labelled a "problem class." When these boys came to school last fall, their "none-too-flattering" reputation had preceded them, and I did not anticipate the year ahead with much enthusiasm.

Never again will I formulate impressions of any class of pupils until I have had the opportunity of knowing them, regardless of what their past record has been. "My boys" have been no problem. Our class periods have been a source of pleasure for all of us. We have worked together co-operatively. There have been no serious disciplinary problems and few minor infractions of school rules. They have obviously been happy in class and enjoyed the work. As I consider the excellent results obtained this year in terms of habits, attitudes, and understandings as compared with similar classes of other years, I am convinced that *the introduction of aviation* into this year's teaching has furnished a common denominator for their interests, and, for the first time, the subject matter presented to them has appealed to the group as a whole. It has been sufficiently flexible and varied to meet the needs of the slow pupil and, at the same time, has challenged the rapid pupil whose interests should be stimulated and experiences broadened.

THE STORY

To relate in any logical manner how aviation was injected into the mathematics teaching is difficult, in that it was largely incidental, and all phases of aviation taught were an outgrowth of the inquisitive interests of the pupils. However, I had formulated some plans in my own mind previous to the opening of school, as to how I would like to conduct the class. I worked out an outline of aviation facts which I considered as having mathematical significance. Also, I had a general mathematics course of study to guide me in accomplishing the mathematics requirements outlined by the State Department of Education. With these two outlines, plus aviation materials and mathematics texts, I set about to make tentative plans as to how I could re-

concile aviation and mathematics—the one to enrich and vitalize the other. Although many of these plans which I made previous to meeting the class were later revised or entirely discarded, they did serve their purpose. I was better prepared in guiding the students' thinking into the right channels because I had become more air-minded myself.

The first few times I met my class we spent the entire period getting acquainted. We discussed their immediate interests and future plans. There was some interest in aviation evidenced, but I was a little disappointed that it was not more pronounced. They were interested in certain phases of aviation, particularly recognition of aircraft, but they had little real knowledge of the subject. Therefore, for several weeks our mathematics class was an "air-conditioning" period. My intention during this time was not to force aviation upon them, but rather to get them to thinking in terms of aviation and the air age in which we live. I tried to "get across" to them a realization of how aviation affects the life of every individual today. I brought into class every available bit of aviation information with mathematical implications. For several weeks they reviewed the fundamental arithmetic processes, but not in the same manner as of previous years. Their mathematics problems were based upon authentic events in aviation, and they had arithmetic drill only as there was a need for it in solving the problems. I was very careful that the problems should always contain accurate aviation knowledge. Events such as Madame Chiang Kai Shek's flight to this country and record-breaking flights furnished a variety of excellent material for problems. The *Digest of Aviation Events* was always a source of good problem material. The boys, also, brought in clippings and pictures, and soon they too were formulating problems. I was surprised at the quantity of arithmetic which could be taught in this way and more surprised at their continued interest. Problems of air distances, air routes, passenger fares and revenue, air mail, express and freight, monetary systems of other countries, standard time, and many others resulted from current aviation events.

We accumulated such a quantity of clippings and pictures that the boys suggested we start a class scrapbook. This continued until it became so cumbersome that we decided on individual scrapbooks instead. The boys designed attractive covers for their books, some of them using their art periods for this purpose. It proved a good project! Each day I could see an awakening of interest on the part of some pupils and a broadening of interests in others. In fact, they were becoming so alert to aviation events that there was not sufficient time to hear all of their reports in the time allotted in each period for this purpose.

About this time, I was becoming quite disturbed over the fact that it was practically impossible to confine my teaching to aviation mechanics alone. I found that, of necessity, I was also teaching English, geography, science, social studies, and even art appreciation. Some of the reports which the boys gave would have made glad the hearts of their English teachers. It would have been impossible to teach problems of speed, distance, transportation, and a variety of others which occurred incidentally without some study of maps, of polar air routes, of the effects of a "shrunk globe" on international relationships. In fact, I believe it was the general knowledge they gained which sustained their mathematical interest and helped them to acquire a greater appreciation of the relationship between mathematics and other subjects. I would like to emphasize the fact that, in this class, aviation was *not* considered a sugar-coated motivation in the teaching of mathematics. If this had been the case, I doubt if it would have continued effective throughout the year. I prefer to think of aviation as having been the core of the mathematics curriculum, around which their activities centered. I feel that from this method of presenting the subject they have derived not a mass of unrelated facts, but rather that they have acquired an appreciation of relationships and sound mathematical concepts.

I had one pet device which I used in this "air-conditioning" period which never failed to get the desired results. Whenever I wanted to get some special bit of work done, I had only to plead ignorance of some aviation fact (which was often the case) and ask them to set me straight. They loved to find the facts and explain them to me so that I would understand them. Some of our best problems came out of this technique. Their argumentative natures were also an asset when properly directed. On many occasions, one boy would disagree with another on some aspect of aviation. The only way to settle the argument was to find the facts, which they were glad to do to prove a point. Usually a good mathematical explanation was worked out. Their natural inquisitiveness proved to be another asset. I capitalized on questions they asked with excellent results. I recall that several days' work in mathematics resulted from a question concerning vocational opportunities in aviation. They became interested in safety in flying as a result of a plane crash which occurred in October. They brought in statistics which they had found to prove the safety of flying as compared with the safety of other methods of transportation. Some excellent problems resulted.

During this air-conditioning period, I was receiving quantities of aviation materials from various sources, which has proved of invaluable help. The boys were very much interested in this material and every day they asked what

I had received. One of our most worth-while projects came from a discussion of a flight and propulsion spectrum chart which had been sent to me. The boys were greatly interested in studying the comparative speeds which were pictured, but they did not have sufficient knowledge of graphs to interpret it. A discussion of graphs followed, and soon we were launched on a graph project which lasted for several weeks. They studied, interpreted, and constructed all kinds of graphs, all of which were related to some phase of aviation. Inasmuch as I required that their graphs should contain authentic information, their greatest problem was that of finding statistics. About this time—thanks to our kind advertising benefactors—some folders arrived on "Air Transportation Facts and Figures." Here were ample aviation statistics for them to graph! And what a grand job they did! The large numbers in the tables (rarely anything under a million) dismayed them not at all. I was amazed at how masterfully they "broke down" these large numbers into scales which they could picture graphically. The results of this project were more gratifying than I had ever hoped. They learned how to construct accurate, neat, artistic graphs. They acquired much aviation information. They learned many mathematical facts—particularly, meaningful number concepts and relationships. But most important, they came to a realization of their own potentialities; they gained confidence in themselves and their abilities. They were very proud of what they had accomplished, and they experienced real satisfaction from a good job, well done.

Sometime during the late fall, I realized that the "air-conditioning" period was over. I suddenly became aware that we were a thoroughly air-minded class. We were all thinking in terms of aviation. The class was friendly and co-operative. The boys knew that all of us were participating in an experiment and they were doing their utmost to make it a success. About this time we received some publicity. A picture of the class at work and a story of our endeavor appeared on the front page of the largest newspaper in the state. The reporter who visited us and "wrote us up" seemed quite impressed by the spontaneity and clear thinking displayed by the boys. As I have mentioned, these boys had never received much attention or praise, not to mention publicity, so it was not surprising that this was a "lift" to their morale.

Each week I gave the class a mathematics test and occasionally a quiz on aviation facts. I was satisfied that their accomplishment compared favorably with previous classes. However, upon completion of the first unit, I gave a more lengthy, comprehensive test, not so much to check on them, as to check on my own teaching and to determine if I had accomplished by this procedure what was required up to this point. The results of the test were very gratifying.

Of course, not all of the mathematics taught dealt with aviation. Often, several days or weeks might elapse with the only aviation mathematics being a few incidental problems. Almost invariably after several such classes, the boys began asking when they would have more aviation. Frequently a bit of information was contributed or a question asked which proved to be the "opening wedge" to a new project. It was in this way that our airport project developed. An article appeared in our local newspaper concerning improved landing strips and runways at the local airport which were being considered. The boys were very much interested in these developments, and a lengthy discussion followed. Out of this discussion plans for constructing a model of Concord Municipal Airport emerged. First, we made a study of airports in general. The classes of airports, design, selection of locations, buildings, air markings, and operation and maintenance were considered. Many good cost problems were entered into the study of operation and maintenance. We used our own airport for figuring operating costs, obtaining statistics from the city report and from the office of the New Hampshire Aeronautics Commission. These figures were real and meaningful. The students enjoyed the arithmetic more because they could see its practical application. The study of airport design was the introduction I needed for starting the required unit in geometry. The study of geometric figures, angles, and the use of measuring tools appealed to them much more because they knew that soon they would be using this information in constructing the airport model.

This preliminary work in the arithmetic and geometry involved in airport construction took several weeks. Naturally, we avoided the technical and scientific, keeping our study on a very simple and elementary level. Nevertheless, they were very serious about the project, and I allowed them to decide for themselves when they felt they had sufficient information to proceed with their plans. They had been eager to get started on the model, and they were all very co-operative in organizing themselves for the job ahead. They worked in teams, each team being responsible for a certain portion of the construction. They made numerous trips to the airport to take measurements. They pestered Mr. Hilliard of the New Hampshire Aeronautics Commission and the airport manager, but these men evidently didn't mind too much, for they are our staunch allies in every endeavor.

The boys encountered their first difficulty in scaling the model. They did not have too much trouble with the larger dimensions, but with the smaller measurements they became entangled in fractions and were obliged to appeal for help. Here was a fine opportunity for review of fractions. I was surprised at how willingly they entered into this additional drill, when they could see

the practical use for fractions. At the same time I introduced the ratio and proportion involved in scale drawing. When they went back to work on the model, they had no difficulty, and everything progressed smoothly. Of course, only two or three could work on the model at a time. Each day a different team did a certain amount, while the rest of the class worked at their desks. The finished product is excellent, and the boys were very proud of the result of their efforts. One boy remarked to me, "I never learned so much math in my life as I did making the model. I can even do fractions now." For him, this was a real achievement.

For a period of time after this project was completed, we concentrated on other phases of mathematics not directly related to aeronautics. I was surprised and delighted at the apparent transfer of interest and understanding. These pupils, by realizing a need for mathematics in the aviation they had been studying, were able to relate these mathematical concepts to other life situations. They wondered why their math suddenly seemed easier and were surprised that they really were enjoying it.

These "in-between" periods, however, were never entirely free from aviation. Frequently some member of the class reported on some aviation event which would provide at least a period of problem solving. It was during one of these periods that I introduced formulas. For some time they studied the use and manipulation of various kinds of formulas, including some used in aviation. Naturally, they were not capable of working with complicated aeronautical formulas, but those, such as "radius of action" and "lift and drag," were simple enough for them to use. I had hoped that some questions would be forthcoming about *lift* and *drag* after discussing the formulas, and I was not disappointed. They had a vague idea as to how planes fly, but they wanted to know more about what made planes stay in the air. They asked so many questions, once they got started, that soon we were discussing the simple rudiments of aero-dynamics. I wanted them to have some knowledge of the theory of flight, but, of course, we could only "touch the high spots." They enjoyed it, nonetheless. They prepared and gave oral reports on various aspects of how planes fly, which, incidentally, were concerned more with science than mathematics. We followed this with a brief study of the functions of the controls of a plane and basic instruments used in flying. At this point it required considerable resourcefulness to find or formulate problems related to the subject that were not too difficult for them to solve, but I did manage to supplement the discussion with some related mathematics.

I do not recall how we became launched on our next aviation unit—meteorology—but I believe it was an outgrowth of their study of the basic flying

instruments. It was difficult to explain the functions of the controls, especially the altimeter, without reference to weather conditions and atmospheric pressure. The boys had already studied *weather* in science; so our introductory work was largely a review of topics such as the nature of the atmosphere, wind, moisture, condensation, and air masses and fronts. However, our approach was somewhat different, in that they were learning the practical application of weather information and could understand the necessity of the pilot being informed. They were particularly interested in the weather map and how weather facts are transmitted and recorded. Of course, all of this weather study was accompanied by mathematics. For a part of each period and for homework assignments, they had problems related to the topic they had been discussing. Their problems covered phases of meteorology such as atmospheric pressure (effect of altitude on pressure), changing inches to millibars and millibars to inches, centigrade and Fahrenheit scales, and density and viewpoint. The mathematics processes included decimals, percentages, metric measurement, volume, and formulas.

When I started preparing this report, I questioned the boys concerning which topic in aviation they had enjoyed the most. The unanimous response was *navigation*. They looked forward to studying navigation for some time before we finally got under way. One of the boys remarked that he thought he would really feel like a pilot when he could plan a flight and chart a course. It was necessary that they have additional review and drill of arithmetic fundamentals, equations, signed numbers, and formulas, all of which were necessary in navigation mathematics, before starting on this phase of aviation. Finally, however, the day came when they seemed to be ready for this new work, and for several weeks thereafter we concentrated for the most part on navigation.

In order to vary the presentation of this topic from the usual procedure, we decided that a "ground school" would be more novel and interesting than the old routine. At first I was to be the instructor, and later they were to take turns in conducting the class. We discussed briefly the various forms of navigation, but we concentrated attention on "dead reckoning" only. We obtained enough sectional charts of this area so that each boy had one to use. We spent some time in studying the general features of the chart such as topography of the area, aeronautical data, distance scale, radio ranges, *etc.* I also injected latitude and longitude into this study, and, believe it or not, they liked it. Several of the boys commented that they had had latitude and longitude before but they had never seen any sense to it. Now they found it to be very understandable, since they could see a use for it through the eyes of a pilot. Air markings, also, had more meaning now. A discussion of time zones, telling

time on the twenty-four-hour clock, and estimating time of arrival also provided some incidental arithmetic. After this preliminary study, they learned to plot a "true course." This included the use of a compass rose on the chart and its value to the pilot. They had no difficulty now in measuring angles, since they had already had so much practice in the use of the protractor when constructing the model. After they had a thorough knowledge of how to plot a true course on the sectional chart, they then learned how to make corrections for variation and deviation and calculated the compass course. Following this we studied the effect of wind upon a course. They learned to construct a wind triangle and calculate drift angle and ground speed.

As planned, the boys took turns being "instructor." Each boy knew several days in advance when he would "take over the class." Very often he reviewed something which had been presented, but, frequently, a boy introduced and explained some entirely new phase. They took their responsibility very seriously, and I was amazed at the amount of preparation and research which went into these presentations. Inasmuch as the rest of the class were allowed to ask questions, the "instructor" knew he must be sure of his facts, for the boys delighted in "crossing him up." Very frequently after we finished "ground school," the boys spoke of what a good time they had.

During the spring term of school, we did not spend much time on aviation, except as it occurred incidentally. There remained some required math to be covered which could not in any way be related to aviation. However, I would like to repeat how apparent was the transfer of interest to these other unrelated fields of mathematics. The interest which had been stimulated by the injection of aviation did not lag, as I feared it might, when they entered upon the study of mathematics of an entirely different nature. They seemed to have acquired an ability to relate the outcomes of these activities to other situations.

The climax of the year's activities for this class was their all-day field trip to the municipal airport. I purposely reserved this tour for the latter part of the year. I felt that they would have a greater appreciation of what they would see after having become familiarized with the general aspects of aviation. I also believed that, as the year progressed, they would develop a spirit of cooperation and responsibility because of a common interest, which would make the tour more meaningful and enjoyable. This proved to be definitely true. Also, having this outing to anticipate was an added incentive to do their best work. We were all happy and excited when we started out on the morning of May 5th, "as perfect a day as ever seen, for a nice little trip in a flying machine" (Darius Green). I cannot be too lavish with my praise of those who

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arranged the activities for us and of the kind and courteous attention we were given. Mr. Law of the CAA Safety Division planned the itinerary, and he gave up his entire day for our pleasure, as did Mr. Flynn, the airport manager. Our tour included the weather bureau, communications station, tower, safety district office, and the Ferns and Martin hangars. Mr. Russell Hilliard, Director of the New Hampshire Aeronautics Commission talked to the boys, as did Mr. Martin of the Martin Flying Service. Movies on various phases of aeronautics were shown. We observed the arrival of a North East Airline flight. The boys took pictures of every phase of the tour. It was a very warm day and the vending machines were kept busy ringing up the nickels. The climax to their very full and satisfying day came with flight experience for all of us, furnished by the two flying services. We were a very tired, sunburned group when we started homeward, but what a thrilling day it had been!

APPRAISAL

I hardly know how to close this report; there still remains so much which should be said. I have not attempted to include every mathematical principle and concept which was taught. I have merely tried to make reference to certain types of mathematics which were directly related to aviation. I am extremely happy that our air-age project was such a great success. However, I realize that we never could have accomplished what we did without the help of so many interested persons. The materials furnished us by the CAA were a constant source of reference. The abundance of other materials which I was able to secure through the compilation of addresses furnished by the CAA were of invaluable help. The Air Age Center which was set up in our room, very adequately equipped with aviation material, was a valuable source of reference for both teachers and pupils. The field representatives of the CAA, the New Hampshire Aeronautics Commission, the State Department of Education, and the personnel at the airport, all deserve our thanks for the service they gave us. We were always sure of the co-operation of our principal, who is himself an ardent aviation enthusiast. The audio-visual department of our school co-operated in securing and showing aviation films. I am exceedingly grateful for having had the privilege of attending the Washington Conference on Aviation last June. I know that it was at this meeting that I really "caught the spark" which provided the stimulus for this year's endeavors. I have been very lavish in expressing my personal satisfaction with the results of this project. Mine is only one point of view. I would like to close with a few excerpts from some remarks written by the boys themselves:

John—This year I have enjoyed math more than I ever have since I came to R.J.H.S.

Edward—The aviation part of math is the most interesting.

Maurice—This year, general math has been the most interesting subject I have ever taken in school.

Everett—We have learned a lot about aviation, but I also got my required math for ninth grade.

Robert—I have enjoyed coming to math class every morning. It is my favorite class. It goes by the fastest of them all.

Del—Making the model has been the most fun. I liked the measuring and drawing the angles with my friend, John.

Frank—I have learned a lot of useful math this year and enjoyed the class.

Francis—Before this year, I hated math and could never get it through my head until we started aeronautical math.

Dean—I think that math with aviation mixed in is far more interesting than math alone.

SCHEDULE OF VISIT TO THE CONCORD MUNICIPAL AIRPORT

MAY 5, 1949

9:30 A.M. Meet in Terminal lobby

9:40 A.M. Discussion of airport activities by Airport Manager, William E. Flynn

9:56 A.M. Observe arrival and departure of North East Airlines Flight 56 from

New York to Boston

10:15 A.M. *Group 1*—Weather Bureau

Group 2—Communications Station

10:30 A.M. *Group 1*—Communications Station

Group 2—Weather Bureau

10:45 A.M. *Group 1*—Tower

Group 2—Aviation Safety District Office

11:00 A.M. *Group 1*—Aviation Safety District Office

Group 2—Tower

11:15 A.M. *Group 1*—William E. Martin Hangar

Group 2—Ferns Flying Service Hangar

11:30 A.M. *Group 1*—Ferns Flying Service Hangar

Group 2—William E. Martin Hangar

11:45 A.M. Talk by Mr. Russell Hilliard, Director of New Hampshire Aeronautics

Commission. Martin Classroom.

12:00 M. Movies—Martin Classroom

12:30 P.M. Lunch

1:15 P.M. Flight experience donated by Ferns Flying Service and William E. Martin Flying Service from the Airport Terminal ramp.

STUDY OUTLINES

Following is an outline of the Unit on Aviation Concepts which evolved from the study of Aviation in General Mathematics:

UNIT I *Are We Ready for the Air Age?* (Air-conditioning unit)

A. Aviation affects the life of every individual

1. World-wide transport industry
a. Passenger service

- b. Mail service
- c. Freight service
- d. Express service
- 2. Polar air routes
 - a. Great-circle routes
 - b. Interchange of goods

- c. Effects of "shrunk globe" on international relationships
- 3. Vocational opportunities in aviation
- 4. Aviation events with mathematical implications
- 5. Safety in flying

UNIT II Study of Airports

- A. General features
 - 1. Design
 - 2. Classes
 - 3. Suitable locations
 - 4. Layout of airport
 - 5. Marking and lighting
 - 6. Buildings
 - 7. Operations and finances
 - 8. Maintenance
- B. Geometry
 - 1. Recognition of geometric figures
 - 2. Kinds and construction of angles

- 3. Drawing to scale
- C. Construction of model of Concord Airport to scale (Scale, 1"—150')
 - 1. Use of drawing tools
 - 2. Planning suitable scale
 - 3. Construction of angles of intersection
 - 4. Construction of hangars, other buildings, and equipment to scale
 - 5. Construction of model
 - 6. Air markings

UNIT III How Do Planes Fly?

- A. Theory of flight
 - 1. Lift—how produced
 - a. Design of wing
 - b. Angle of attack
 - c. Effect of *weight*
 - d. Effect of *thrust* and *drag*
 - 2. Construction of plane

- a. Appreciation of design
- b. Basic instruments used in flying
 - (1) Tachometer
 - (2) Air-speed indicator
 - (3) Altimeter
 - (4) Compass
 - (5) Bank indicator

UNIT IV Meteorology (Importance in flight)

- A. What meteorology is
 - 1. Study of earth's atmosphere
 - a. Troposphere
 - b. Stratosphere
 - 2. Elements of weather
 - a. Temperature
 - b. Humidity
 - c. Clouds

- d. Precipitation
- e. Visibility
- f. Pressure
- g. Ice
- h. Air turbulence
- i. Air masses
- j. Warm and cold fronts
- B. Reading a weather map

UNIT V Navigation (Importance in flight)

- A. What navigation is
 - 1. Science and art of finding one's way and getting from one place to another
- B. Four forms of navigation
 - 1. Pilotage or map reading
 - a. Reference to visible land-marks
 - 2. Dead reckoning
 - a. Direction and distance

- 3. Radio
 - a. Observed radio bearings
- 4. Celestial
 - a. Observation of sun, moon, stars, etc.
- C. Use of maps and charts
 - 1. Plotting of course
 - 2. Approximate time
 - 3. Estimated arrival

Air-Age Education in the Secondary School

ILENE LYNCH

THE SETTING

THIS is a record of some of the significant learning activities, relative to aviation, that were carried on at the Roosevelt High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota. These students, with few exceptions, are of white north European ancestry. For the most part their fathers are employed in skilled and semi-skilled trades. Few of the mothers are employed. With very few exceptions, the families own their homes and the students have lived in the community since they were born. Few parents and few students have ever ridden in a plane, nor have they even seen the inside of one.

The school district touches Wold Chamberlain airport property on the south. Many of the students have lived all their lives in the shadow of the airport and the naval base. Planes frequently wing their way over the school; so the drone of their motors is part of our daily lives. Possibly, we accept the airplane more complacently than people to whom it is less familiar.

THE STORY

It is not to be assumed that an Aviation Unit was started in February and continued without interruption until the end of May, for this was only one of several units moving forward simultaneously. "Plans for several different undertakings may be carried on simultaneously, some earmarked for the more distant future, some scheduled for the immediate future." (Kilpatrick, Van Til, and others, *International Attitudes in the Making*, Harper Bros., 1947.) This quotation from Bernice Bridges has to do with youth organizations in a community, but it applies equally well to the school situation.

From our educational viewpoint, it is not possible to open and close a unit on aviation, conservation, orientation, or other topic, as one turns on and off a faucet. In a fluid, permissive classroom situation, it is not possible to cut

Miss Lynch is Common Learning Teacher in the Roosevelt High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

learning into segments and "peg down" discrete portions. We do not fear a "hodge-podge" that results when, in our learning, we face "real life situations." However, we believe that it is possible and advisable for the teacher and, in a measure, the class, to keep a record of progress on several fronts and from time to time to take stock of what has been read, what has been said, what has been done, and what has been the purpose of each activity. Our educational viewpoint recognizes the objectives *briefly developed* in the following paragraphs.

Emotional Security—In order to promote a sense of security among our students, it seems highly desirable to bring about a feeling that the airplane is a valuable servant providing all men with a wider experience and a higher standard of living. Such strong emphasis has been put upon the use of the airplane in warfare and upon its possibilities in atomic and biological warfare that there could be a feeling that its invention has proved to be more of a curse than a blessing to mankind. To promote a more balanced point of view is an objective in teaching.

Acceptance of Social Change—The great speed of the airplane has made the whole world next door neighbors. It has made isolation impossible, and has rendered obsolete the old political and diplomatic machinery which has permeated our historical traditions. To help our country accept this changed status, the young people, upon whom the hand of tradition is not strong, have a very vital part. Acceptance of orderly social change is an objective in teaching.

Spiritual—In these days of stress and strain, the possibilities offered by the airplane in carrying man into the quiet places of beauty and rest, where he can feel the healing power of nature, is an important consideration. (To facilitate ready access to such retreats, airports in the northern lake country in Minnesota and terminal facilities near our national parks, ocean, beaches, etc., are necessary.)

Habits—Being open minded (on such questions as the relative importance of the army and navy in relation to air power, for example); being willing to analyze the arguments (for and against carrier based planes, for example).

Attitudes—Being willing to share what we have with visitors from far places. Being willing to adapt to conditions, as courteous guests, when visiting in other parts of the world.

Skills—Mathematical computations having to do with air resistance, speed, radar, temperature, etc.—writing (field trip reports, for example); reading (magazine articles, stories, newspaper accounts); speaking (taking

part in discussion of oral reports); good manners (introducing themselves to guide, etc.)

Broadening Interests from Immediate Community to the Wide World.

Discovering New Leads for Motivating a Study of Old Subjects—Discussion of magazine articles used proposed a point of departure, thus opening the doorway to other units. The use of the airplane by the farmer in spraying orchards and field crops and by the AAA in surveying crop production to check on production quotas, opened up the unit on "How the World is Fed." The article by Gene Cooper, "Look Down and Look Ahead," (*Country Gentlemen*, Vol. CXIX, No. 5, p. 34, May, 1949), and Aerial Photos Tell the Story, ("Farmers Get Up Over Their Land") opened up the discussion on soil conservation, a part of the large unit on conservation of our natural resources. Discussion of the use of airplanes in "planting" fish in our lakes opened up the matter of replenishing our state with fish and with game birds, another important area in conservation of our natural resources that, in turn, tied in with Minnesota's thriving summer resort business.

A Major Activity Undertaken by the Class Was a Trip to the Airport—The people in charge of airport tours prefer small groups of students; so six students went out each day until the entire class had gone. Excerpts from a few of the reports written by the students give an idea of what they especially enjoyed.

Helen B. writes: Our trip to the airport was to begin at 10:00 on Friday morning, February 18. The bus took us directly to the Administration Building. There we presented ourselves and were introduced to our guide. Our first stop was the control tower. This, to us, was the most interesting part of the tour. We saw planes landing and taking off. We all noticed the several clocks in the tower. From the tower we went through a hangar where several mechanics were working on the planes. There were three planes in the hangar; one was the famous "Shanghai"—a DC4. We were disappointed that we couldn't go through a plane. This is usually included in their tour, but on Friday there weren't any planes available for this purpose. After we had seen these planes, we went upstairs to the reservations department. Here one can make a reservation to fly anywhere in the world. Also, this department is in constant contact with other airports. The reservations department was divided into two departments. In one, reservations are made and, in the other, seating space is sold.

Joan S. writes: The tower has control of all incoming and outgoing planes, including navy training ships. There were three men at the controls, each equipped with a radio set which enables him to guide three or four planes into the field at the same time. They speak in a sort of letter code so they can say things quickly and give instructions without wasting time. On the day that we were there, a navy plane was having trouble finding the field. This made our visit more exciting. Later we were informed that it had landed safely.

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Patty B. writes: The ride to the airport was uneventful except for the discovery of Mr. Webster (our student teacher) on the streetcar. We transferred to the bus and finally arrived at the airport. Our guide resembled Dana Andrews and shall, therefore, be referred to as Dana, since we do not know his real name. Our first stop was the control tower. We spent close to fifteen minutes watching airplanes come in and go out, and worrying about Navy 926. It seems that Navy 926 was lost somewhere "southwest of the landing field." We left not knowing the fate of poor Navy 926. Next we visited the Oriental Room where visitors from the Orient spend the hours waiting for their planes. This room is beautifully furnished in modern style. Dana informed us that Minneapolis is the direct stopping point from China. From here we went up to the Northwest Airlines hangar and watched the fellows service the planes. Dana told us all about wages, hours, and jobs. Altogether, the trip was a big success. It was educational and I know that we all enjoyed it.

Harry C. writes: I didn't know that planes have to fly regularly scheduled flight whether or not they have passengers. This is because they carry United States mail.

Bob S. writes: There was a transport out on the field. We asked the guide if we could go inside and look around. When we got inside, it looked very roomy and comfortable. We went into the cockpit and saw all the instruments that the pilot uses. We went back and sat in the seats. Were they ever comfortable!

Joan P. writes: The plane was very clean; the upholstery was spotless as was the small kitchen of stainless steel. The meals are cooked at the airport and are reheated on the plane.

Phyllis P. writes: The cockpit was very complicated. It takes someone with more brains than I have to operate all the controls and know what they are for. We saw where the stewardess fixes the meals and were told how they were already prepared so all she has to do is to warm and serve them. I feel that this trip was worth while because I learned more about airplanes and how airports are operated. A ride in an airplane is what I am longing for now.

Discussions of the problems of traveling by airplanes were held. The following quotation from the Minneapolis *Star-Journal*, January 28, 1949, is an illustration of material of interest to students used to motivate student discussion:

If you get airsick, seasick, trainsick, or carsick at this unpleasant season, you can take hope. Your sufferings are being analyzed. Relief may be at hand before many winters pass. No one is immune to motion sickness. One person out of ten is highly susceptible. About sixty per cent of those who get sick are women. Here are some do's and don't's pertaining to motion sickness:

If you're flying, take a front seat on the aisle. They give the smoothest ride.

Don't choose a left window seat. The Capital Airlines' study showed twice as much sickness on the left, probably because the plane tilts to the left on take-offs and landings, and left-side riders get a fuller view of the effects of motion.

When at sea and in your deck chair, turn it inward. Your view will be keener, but your sense of motion less pronounced. Lie down; that relieves the strain.

Investigate the preventive measures. Certain drugs—which your physician can tell you about—reduce motion sickness.

Drugs must be downed in advance. Once the victim starts to sweat and turn green, all is lost.

The following quotation, taken from a most attractive booklet, *In Mexico—It's the Custom, Senor!* (Copyright, 1948) put out by American Airlines, Inc., warns the American to "mind his manners" when traveling in a foreign country. There are clever pen sketches in the margins which add interest. This selection is typical of reading material used by the group.

To get you off to a Flying Start

American Airlines presents with pleasure this little booklet designed to help you ease your way through Mexican customs. Not those at the border, but Mexican customs that flourish through the country . . . the dozens of *little* differences in the way of doing everyday things that add up to the *big* difference that is Mexico.

Perhaps, of course, this isn't your first trip south of the border—in which case, you could probably have written this booklet yourself. If, on the other hand, it is your first trip, we think it's the kind of booklet you'll be glad we've written. Because we've tried to make it a *different* kind of guidebook. Not a Baedaker on where to go and what to see, but rather a handbook on how to do things in the Mexican manner. The information you get from the following pages will, we hope, make your stay in Mexico smoother, simpler, and more enjoyable. And if, as a result, you have the time of your life, we won't be a bit surprised, because, you see—"In Mexico, it's the custom, Senor!"

The Influence of Mind over Manner

In Mexican life, many of the differences in custom and behavior stem from the difference in psychological makeup between Mexicans and North Americans. Although Mexico is in many ways a pioneering country, full of high plans for the future, its social traditions and forms take their cue from the Old World rather than the New.

Mexicans are more ceremonious and formal and leisurely. They like to do their living as they go along—enjoy the full flavor of it during every kind of activity—business, social, domestic, or private. North Americans, on the other hand, are impulsive, informal, hurried. They throw themselves so completely into whatever they're doing that they frequently overlook other considerations.

Mexicans think of people as individuals first—and like to be thought of as individuals first. A Mexican thinks of himself primarily as a man—and only secondarily as a waiter, a cab driver, or hotel clerk. Mexicans find it hard to grasp the North American habit of thinking of people in terms of their function first. For a Mexican, work exists for man, not man for work.

Once you understand this basic outlook and learn to judge things from the Mexican point of view while you're in Mexico, you'll find that the behavior of the people, their ways and customs and social conventions all form part of a clearly defined, consistent cultural pattern, easy to grasp, enjoyable to live with. And in the following pages, we've tried to give you a few of the *specific* differences in custom that show the influence of mind over manner. [The sixty-three-page booklet continues in the same vane, discussing eating and drinking, shopping, etc. There are even a few Spanish sentences that a traveler might use in order to obtain more necessary service.]

The class studied the map in the history text by Ralph Volney Harlow, *Story of America*, page 808. The statement under the map is as follows: "The travel time across the United States has decreased greatly in less than a hundred years—from almost a month to much less than a day. What influence has this had on the story of America?" The map itself is pictorial, illustrating modes of transportation and time involved in crossing the American continent. The illustrations close with the year 1941. The students brought the map up-to-date, even to drawing in the plane.

The technique of oral, student reports was used to advantage. The following magazine articles reviewed by a committee of students were reported to the class:

Finletter, Thomas K. "Air Power and World Peace." *Atlantic*, Vol. 181:4, p. 25, April, 1948. Real security for this country lies only in abolition of war under a regime of world law.

Fliner, Jerome. "If Biological Warfare Comes." *Harper's*, 1176, p. 426, May, 1948. Conductor of educational projects, Department of Health, New York City, explains how devastating such warfare could be.

Lansdale, John, Jr. "Superman and Atom Bomb." *Harper's*, 197: 1175, p. 355, April, 1948. A letter regarding "leak" from War Department regarding secret atomic cyclotron.

Lindbergh, Ann Morrow. "Airliner to Europe." *Harper's*, 197: 1180, p. 43, September, 1948. Notes from her diary.

Miles, Sherman. "Pearl Harbor in Retrospect." *Atlantic*, 182:1, p. 65, July, 1948. Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence, War Department, 1940-42, discusses Pearl Harbor.

Tote, Marguerite Gaylord, "Marooned in the Clouds." *Atlantic*, 181:2, p. 34, February, 1948. (The mother of the pilot, Captain Ralph Tote, was one of his passengers.)

Wolfgang, Langewische. "The Middle East Over the Wingtip." *Harper's*, 198: 1184, p. 85, January, 1949. Flight diary of instrument test pilot and writer for *Air Facts* on his trip to the Orient.

Wolfgang, Langewische. "Look Down, Look Down." *Harper's*, 197:1182, p. 64, November, 1948. Ferrying a two-engined plane from New York to the Far East.

Wolfgang, Langewische. "Upstairs to Iceland." *Harper's*, 197: 1181, p. 27, October 1948. (Test Pilot, regular contributor to *Air Facts*.)

The following quotations illustrate how a magazine article may be used to heighten interest in a story describing conditions at an earlier period in our history when our pioneers had "to take it" without benefit of "Haylift." The students read about the heroic rescue work described in the newspapers and in magazine articles such as "West Fights Worst Winter in History" (*Life*, 26: 19, February 14, 1949).

In all the records of the Weather Bureau there has never been anything like it—men and animals were undergoing untold hardships. It was no longer a question of merely trying to save the herds with "Operation Haylift;" it was time now to keep

human beings from starving and freezing. Plane crash kills two Civil Air Patrol fliers who volunteered their services for scouting near Alliance, Nebraska. Pictures of sheep made by photographer John Dominis who unexpectedly became a member of the roundup party when a plane from which he was photographing was forced down in this bleak region.

The class compared the 1949 situation with the complete isolation vividly described in the story by Rose Wilder Lane in *Let the Hurricane Roar*.

Three days and nights the winds did not cease to howl, and, when Caroline opened the door, she could not see the door ledge through swirling snow. How cold it was she could not guess. At sight of the cloud, she had hurriedly begun cramming every spare inch of the dugout with hay. Twisted hard, it burned with a brief, hot flame. Her palms were soon raw and bleeding from handling the sharp, harsh stuff, but she kept on twisting it; she kept the dugout warm.

In the long hours—for she was frugal with kerosene; a wavering light came from the drafts and the broken lid of the stove—she began to fight a vague and monstrous dread. It lay beneath her thoughts; she could not grasp it as a whole; she was always aware of it and never able to defeat it. It lay shapeless and black in the depths of her. From time to time it flung up a question: What if the baby gets sick?

"He won't be sick!" she retorted. "He's a strong, healthy baby. If he's sick, I'll take care of him. I'd take care of him anyway; there's no doctor in town."

Suppose something has happened to Charles? Suppose he never comes back?

"Be still! I won't listen."

That was like a wolf's howl in the wind. Wolves?

"Nonsense, I have the gun. How could a wolf get through the door?"

When you go out—If a wolf sprang suddenly—What of the baby, alone in the dugout?

"Why am I scaring myself with horrible fancies? Nothing like that will happen."

She could never conquer the shapeless, nameless dread itself. Silenced, it did not leave her. It would begin again.

What if the baby gets sick?

"Oh, stop, stop! I can't stand this!" her spirit cried out in anguish. And she asked herself angrily, "What is the matter with you? Brace up and show a little decent spunk! It's only a storm; there'll be lots of them before spring." She tried to conquer the shapeless, dark thing by ignoring it.

The wind howled, gray darkness pressed against the paper pane; a little hard snow, dry as sand, was forced through the crack beneath the door.

On the fourth morning, Caroline was awakened by an immense, profound silence. The frosty air stung her nostrils; the blanket was edged with rime from her breath. Snug in the hollow of her body the baby slept cozily. The window was a vague gray in the dark. She lighted the lamp and started a fire in the cold stove.

She was not perturbed until she tried to open the door. Something outside held it against her confident push. And suddenly wild terror possessed her. She felt a Thing outside, pressed against the door.

It was only snow. She said to herself that it was only snow. There was no danger; the ledge was narrow. She flung all her strength and weight against the door. The stout planks quivered; they pressed against a crunching and a squeaking, and from top to bottom of them ran a sound like a derisive scratch of claws. Then snow fell down the abrupt slope below the ledge, the sunlight pierced Caroline's eyes.

Taking the shovel, she forced her body through the narrow aperture she had gained. For an instant the pain in her eyes blinded her. Then she saw the immensity of whiteness and dazzling blue. She confronted space.

Under the immeasurably vast sky, a limitless expanse of snow refracted the cold glitter of the sun. Nothing stirred, nothing breathed; there was no other movement than the ceaseless interplay of innumerable and unthinkable tiny rays of light. Air and sun and snow were the whole visible world—a world neither, alive nor dead, and terrible because it was alien to life and death, and ignorant of them.

In that instant she knew the infinite smallness, weakness of life in the lifeless universe. She felt the vast, insensate forces against which life itself is a rebellion. Infinitely small and weak was the spark of warmth in a living heart. Yet valiantly the tiny heart continued to beat. Tired, weak, burdened by its own fears and sorrows, still it persisted, indomitably it continued to exist, and in bare existence itself, without assurance of victory, even without hope, in its indomitable existence among vast incalculable, lifeless forces, it was invincible.

From time to time the class enjoyed the following films shown as a part of the movie program arranged for the social studies:

Air Ways of the Future

Dates shown

Feb. 22, 1949

Airplane Trip

Mar. 15, 1949

Behind the Scenes at the Airport

Mar. 15, 1949

Echoes in War and Peace (Radar and Sonar)

Apr. 10, 1949

(Obtained from Northern Bell Telephone Co.)

Ceiling Unlimited

May 25, 1949

(Socony Vacuum Corp.) A very fine production showing actual movies of Teddy Roosevelt, Charles Lindbergh, Wright Brothers, and other important figures in the history of aviation.

APPRAISAL

Since the idea was recurring interest on the part of the students instead of "doing a unit," finding live material was a real problem. We tried using a textbook published in 1944, but there were many complaints from the students that it was out of date; "old stuff" as they put it. Magazine articles and newspaper material proved to be more usable. It might be said, in passing, that materials such as have been suggested offer a real challenge to the writers of textbooks. By the time the textbook material has been gathered, boiled down to a small space, published, and has found its way into the classroom, it has completely lost its flavor and freshness.

An evaluation should not be made on the basis of facts learned but rather on the aliveness of the learning situation, the general atmosphere which is so essential to proper functioning or, shall we say, any functioning of the learning process. If evaluation is made on these terms, one might say that the students got a lot out of a consideration of "aviation as it affects modern living."

1. The airport people who conducted the tour said the groups were "wonderful."
2. Mr. Webster, the practice teacher who accompanied one group, remarked on how courteous the students were to one another; how the boys and girls seemed at ease together.
3. The field trip reports showed discernment. They had spontaneity and originality. The boys showed particular interest in the mechanics; the girls were enthusiastic about the modern trend in furnishings in the airport waiting rooms. Both spoke of comfort and cleanliness.
4. Those who made grammatical errors in writing and reporting were willing to drill in order to overcome particular problems. Naturally those who made no errors did no drill exercises. They did, however, correct drill exercises for those who came to them for help. There was an agreeable co-operative spirit.
5. The movies drew enthusiastic applause.
6. Generally, the magazine articles chosen by students were of high literary quality.
7. Realization of the need for more and better airports in the state appeared to be sharpened.
8. A realization of the importance of aviation in world affairs appeared to be heightened.

FTA WILL HOLD SPECIAL CONFERENCE

A special Future Teachers of America conference will be a part of the annual convention schedule of the American Association of School Administrators in Atlantic City in February. Mrs. Wilda F. Faust, national FTA secretary, will preside at the afternoon meeting on Sunday, February 26, when the purposes, program and progress of FTA will be discussed.

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She Never Knows

The Challenging Aspect of the Position of Senior Secretary in a Secondary School

MARIE A. GALLAGHER

SECONDARY school offices in Philadelphia are staffed by secretaries under the direction and supervision of a senior secretary who has earned her position through competitive examination. The size of the organization usually determines the number of assignees to the office staff; this same factor affects the duties, the responsibilities, and the activities of a senior secretary. It can readily be understood that a secondary school with a personnel of forty or forty-five and an enrolment of twelve to fifteen hundred would have fewer secretaries than a school with ninety to one hundred faculty members and twenty-five hundred or three thousand pupils. "The more the merrier" may be interpreted as the "more the worries" for a senior secretary.

The management of the school office, which so often includes the training of new secretaries in specialized lines of school work, the efficient functioning of intra-school relations, the development and maintenance—through co-operation and excellent service—of good feeling and harmony between the immediate faculty and the nucleus of activities—the office—as well as the rendition of private secretarial service to the administrator indicate that the position of senior secretary in a secondary school is many-sided. Through the expression, "she never knows," an aspect of stimulating challenge is revealed.

The leader of the school office never knows the unexpected obstacle or temperamental development she may encounter; nor can she ever foretell the impetuous complaint or misinterpreted opinion she may have to combat. Arrival each morning is the only trite feature of the senior secretary's day. Her approach to the office is usually enlivened by an avalanche of questions by those she meets on her way. One day may open with such matters as:

A. Do you think it will be all right for me to slip out a few minutes at lunch?
I have to go to bank; it is the only time I can go—and I need money!

Marie A. Gallagher is the Senior Secretary of the Simon Gratz High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

- B. I expect a 'phone call from my hairdresser. Will you or one of the other secretaries make sure I get it? . . . Oh, thank you.
- C. Do you know the regulation about going to observe outside the city? . . . I have not been out for some time and I don't see why I should be denied this privilege, if I want to go? Do you?
- D. Did you give the principal my note? I just wondered for I did not hear anything yet. Have you any idea what his answer will be?

Another idea of the ignition period experienced by the senior secretary—even before the formal opening of school—is suggested by the following type of queries:

- A. My name is misspelled on that mimeographed notice on the bulletin board. I think you should instruct your assistants in accuracy.
- B. I have an appointment right after school. Don't you dare call me if the principal wants me about that assembly program.
- C. Did you know . . . is in the hospital? I certainly think the school should do something for . . . By the way, isn't that your job?
- D. Miss . . . could I see the principal today? I have a report from the Students Association and want to talk to him about it. The boys and girls want the principal's feeling about this project. I'll stop in at lunch time to find out when I can see . . .

Daily and continuously the brain of the senior secretary is afire with such problems—momentous in the eyes of the questioner and requiring concise, accurate response. The answers of the senior secretary to all seekers of advice or opinion, whether pupils or teachers, is of course instantaneous due to the time element and her needed presence at her desk for the customary early-morning matters and for the beginning of the office activities among the secretaries. Good judgment in affirming or denying requests or in interpreting rulings or in transmitting messages is so vital to the success of any senior secretary. The head of the office never knows when or where there will be a rebound to what she has uttered. Pettiness is not absent among adults; refusal to one member in a request and the senior secretary is certain to be the subject of criticism. On the other hand, helpfulness may mean subsequent taking advantage and unconscious assumption by the senior secretary of personal problems of her school associates. The "wailing stone" of the school never knows when she will get another gray hair or a pat on the back. She knows the meaning of the word, "challenge."

The senior secretary may reach her desk and attempt to get organized for the day. Instead, she finds her domain invaded by more vexations. As an example, the "champion of all," is required immediately to focus her attention on the settlement of a substitute problem. Arrangements previously made

for substitute service are nullified for one of many reasons. "Put-out" is the attitude of the head of department and "Let-out" on the head of the office is this unforeseen problem by the vexed one. As a smooth-over in the emergency situation, another teacher's assignment to the class is tactfully suggested by the senior secretary. In the midst of this settlement, however, one ear is particularly awakened by evident dissension between a secretary and a teacher about the number on roll; the other ear is alert to a telephone direction from the central office about compilation of statistics within the current hour. With the telephone in one hand and a pencil in the other and with ears strained to office matters, the senior secretary, through her eyes and double talk, tries to appease for the sudden unavoidable adjustment in teacher assignment and to disperse calmness in the teacher-secretary dispute. She never knows how soon a chip will fly from any shoulder. She does know that in all matters she will be involved from the point of view of responsibility, good management, and personal handling of all problems, as well as for explanation, clarification, issuance of proper directions, and final disposition of all matters. The ability of the senior secretary to "stand fire" is ever challenged.

The interrogation period is continuous throughout the day. In between classes affords a quick run in to the office by a teacher to ask help, to demand satisfaction, or to require more specific directions. Lunch time, too, brings its headaches to the senior secretary. Personal calls and messages to some degree absorb the secretaries' or the senior secretary's time and patience in locating the persons concerned. At this time, of course, the office staff is curtailed and duties are naturally assumed by those not "at lunch." Oftentimes the good nature of the leader of the office is taken advantage of by some members of the staff. "Will you do this for me—it will only take a moment and you do have time?" Even in the digestion of her own lunch, she never knows when a school matter will be the subject of conversation at the table and will make most remote any relaxation from school matters. Problems challenge her path to and from the office at any time. Regardless of locale or time, the senior secretary never knows the next question or problem that may be placed on her doorstep.

Within the confines of the office, this manager of office activities never knows when her knowledge and experience will be called concretely into practice in the duties of her assistants. Absence for any cause may occur among the office staff; the larger the group, the greater the occasions of absence naturally occur. It is true that occasional absence may permit deferment of the current work of the absentee; however, prolonged absence necessitates

reassignment of duties, the "breaking-in" of a substitute or several substitutes, or it may require the senior secretary to take over the individual's reports and miscellaneous duties in addition to her own. She never knows if an occasional absence may, the next day, prove to be a prolonged absence. She never knows what will come to light when she "takes over." She never knows how much time will be consumed—time she has planned for her own desk work—in such "pinch-hitting" situations. The senior secretary does know that she must meet the challenge and carry through to successful completion at these times.

What does a buzz from the inner office mean? The head secretary can expect a long conference, little or much dictation, criticism, *etc.* Sometimes she can hope for disposition of the day's mail without lengthy conference or just a request from a telephone connection or some other brief matter. A signal from the inner sanctum may mean and bring to her attention *anything*—minute or vast in solution. *She never knows!*

Planning and outlining the duties of the office staff might be considered the cornerstone of the senior secretary's professional construction. The frame work is developed through intelligent instruction of assistants, through capable management, through thorough knowledge of the school's own organization and of the entire school system, through experience in handling the personnel, and chiefly through the leader's own personality. A domineering presence destroys co-operation and willingness to learn and do among associates; a personality that pleases, encourages, assists, and stands the unexpected of never knowing what the day will bring forth produces a concrete basis of durability and industry in the office structure.

Any construction is liable to suffer snags or delays. So, too, the senior secretary never knows when a brick of conflict between or among the office personnel may fall into her lap for settlement or reconstruction. "Smooth as glass" may be the workings of the office. Suddenly, without any warning, an uproar occurs. For instance, a secretary, assigned to either counter or telephone duty, because of temperament, domestic trouble, or even the "I don't care" attitude, may neglect the assignment. In the rendering of prompt, courteous service to the public and to the personnel of the school, another member takes over the duty at the time, but voices strenuous resentment. Personalities differ; viewpoints also differ. As a result the senior secretary needs to rebuild tactfully and intelligently good feeling through showing the value of the extra duty as experience and through understanding of the ups-and-downs of the ladder of human relations. She never knows what the disposition of her associates will be—they are human, too!

(Continued on page 153)

The Teachers' Council and Democratic Administration

SAMUEL D. MOSKOWITZ

IN 1943 the Board of Education of the City of New York published a report of the Committee for the Study of Practical Democracy in Education, which was prepared under the chairmanship of a member of the Board of Education and a former teacher, Johanna M. Lindlof. The Lindlof Report dealt at some length with the problem of teachers' councils. Teachers' interest committees, as the teachers' councils were frequently called, existed in some schools as a protective agency for consideration of teachers' rights and grievances. These teachers' interest committees existed only with the approval of the principal of the school. Some schools, the report goes on to say, choose their council by holding elections in which the staff votes for its representatives according to categories—chairmen, teachers, librarians, laboratory assistant, clerk, or substitute. In the few elementary schools where councils existed, representation was frequently based on levels of teaching: kindergarten through second year, third and fourth years, fifth and sixth, and upper grades. Teachers' interest committees were found in fewer than one quarter of the schools. Teachers in many schools, which did not have a teachers' interest committee, recommended the formation of such a committee as a step toward greater democracy. In some schools the teachers' interest committee had the right to assigned time at regular faculty meetings, the right to call faculty meetings, and the right to hold elections of the entire school staff by secret ballot.

Unfortunately, little was done to implement the many suggestions given in the Lindlof Report for the democratization of school practices. The recent movement in the New York City schools to strengthen education for democracy has, as an important by-product, brought about a revival of interest in the

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Lindlof Report and significant discussion of the need for democratizing teacher-supervisory relationships. In his February, 1949, radio broadcast to all teachers, Superintendent of Schools William A. Jansen said,

Planning the work of a school in a democracy is a co-operative enterprise for all the participants. Our elementary-school program stresses pupil-teacher planning; the school cannot then safely omit teacher-supervisor planning. Opportunities must be provided for teachers and supervisors, as well as for pupils, to practice democracy in our schools. Emphasis must be placed on group study, planning, discussion, and evaluation in solving problems of school policy. School administration must be an example of Americanism in action.

I commend to the attention of teachers and supervisors the experiments going on in many of our schools, which are providing a democratic setting for school administration. Committees of teachers are sharing with their supervisors in the planning of faculty conferences and in the determining of school policies. I am happy to note the increasing amount of co-operative work being done by school and district committees in planning curriculum revision. I hope to see the extension of co-operative teacher-supervisor activity in all matters of professional concern. Teacher advisory groups have been helpful in a number of schools.

THE GROUP PROCESS IN PRACTICE

Encouraged by this clear statement by the City Superintendent of Schools, a committee of teachers and supervisors responsible for editing a bulletin (which goes to all teachers and supervisors), *Strengthening Democracy*, has given considerable attention and space to the subject of democratizing administration. In the February, 1949, issue there appeared two articles describing the group process in action in teachers' councils and a checklist of the functions of such councils.

The Committee to Strengthen Education for Democracy believes with Superintendent Jansen that the democratic "principles on which our American way of life is founded must be reflected in all school administration." We shall welcome contributions describing experimentations looking toward the democratization of teacher-supervisor relationships. Many of the schools have had experience worth exchanging and passing on to others. We are describing below a typical example of the group process in practice in the set-up of the school committees of one 6B elementary school.

At the beginning of the school year, teachers are asked to indicate the committees they are interested in joining. Committees elect their own chairmen and plan their agenda. Each committee meets at least once a month and reports to the faculty at staff conferences. As needs develop, committees other than those described below are organized.

Teachers' Council

- A. Membership: Teacher elected from each growth level: K-2, 3-4, 5-6, and special classes.
- B. Functions: 1. Serve as advisory council in matters of school administration and policy

2. Study of pupil problems and needs
3. Study of teacher problems and needs
4. Study of community problems and needs—problems may be submitted by the teaching or supervisory staffs
5. Select topics for staff conferences
6. Assist principal and assistant-to-principal in determining school programs and drives
7. Organization of appropriate committees to insure participation of the staff in matters of professional concern
8. Report activities to the faculty

C. Meetings: First and third Wednesday of each month from 2:00 to 3:00 o'clock in the Teachers' Room

D. Sub-committees

Teachers' Interest Committee

organizations with officers elected by members

a. Membership: Volunteers to represent all grade levels and various teacher

b. Functions: (1) Administer matters of special teacher interest: questions of salary, pensions, tenure, etc.

(2) Provide liaison with various teacher organizations and parents' association

(3) Report activities to the staff

c. Meetings: At least once each month, at the discretion of the chairman

Teachers' Social Committee

a. Membership: Volunteers to represent all grade levels and special classes

b. Function: Administer all matters of a social nature

c. Meetings: At least once each month, at the discretion of the chairman

Other Committees

Other committees with pedagogic interest are organized and meet regularly. Among these are the following: Curriculum Committees, School Health Council, Testing Committees, and Committee on Guidance.

The checklist raised a number of provocative questions quoted from the Lindlof report: Do you have a teachers' council in your school? Does your teachers' council consider (a) problems of educational policy, (b) problems of administrative policy, (c) problems of teacher welfare? Does your teachers' council have definite and adequate time assigned to it at regular faculty meetings? Does the teachers' council have the right to call faculty meetings?

These articles provoked discussion, especially in the many schools where teachers were not permitted to organize teachers' councils. Many teachers and supervisors wanted to know how such councils were organized, how they operated, what were their powers and limitations. In March the bulletin, *Strengthening Democracy*, printed a description of the operation of a council in one of the city's junior high schools:

At JHS 252, Brooklyn, we nominate and elect the twelve members of our Teachers' Council at a regular faculty meeting. Members of the Council hold office for one year, but at least one third of the membership is rotated annually to obtain the benefits of new viewpoints and to provide for the widest distribution of responsibilities.

The Council elects its own chairman and holds regular weekly meetings. The meetings are open to the entire staff and everyone is invited to present topics for discussion, to participate in the discussion, and to serve on committees. Matters of teachers' interests as well as of professional concern are handled by the Council.

The chairman of the Council discusses all Council recommendations with our principal, Mr. Morris Hertzog. If there are no objections, the recommendations are posted on the bulletin board and are then discussed and voted upon at the next faculty conference. If the principal voices any objection, the proposals are brought back to the Council for reconsideration. Thus far, we have found no issue which could not be resolved to the mutual satisfaction of both Teachers' Council and principal.

At the present time, we have four committees at work: Yearly Promotion, Constitution, School Parties, and Bulletin for New Teachers. Membership on these committees is not restricted to Council members, but is open to the entire faculty.

TEACHERS' INTEREST IN, AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR, PARTICIPATION IN ADMINISTRATION

Planning Area	Percentage of Classroom Teachers	
	Desiring Participation	Actually Participating
Evaluating pupil progress	100.0	100.0
Determining promotion policies	68.7	40.8
Preparing daily programs	68.4	65.8
Preparing the salary schedule	68.0	22.4
Selecting textbooks	67.5	64.1
Building and evaluating courses of study	66.3	76.1
Selecting and administering tests	65.6	45.9
Planning and conducting teachers' meetings	62.6	30.7
Determining playground supervision practices	58.8	45.8
Planning system-wide staff meetings	56.8	28.9
Preparing the budget	55.6	10.9
Determining pupil classification practices	48.4	49.8
Planning school buildings	42.9	9.9
Assigning teachers to buildings and grades	35.4	9.3
Evaluation of teachers' growth	32.1	11.9
Preparing the school calendar	31.4	15.6

In April, 1949, one article reviewed the National Education Association Discussion Pamphlet #12, *Democracy in School Administration*, which discusses teacher interest and opportunities for participation in administration.

TEACHERS' COUNCIL—WHAT IS IT?

In the same issue of *Strengthening Democracy*, there appeared an article (reprinted below) describing the difference between a teachers' council and a teachers' interest committee.

In general, a group of teachers chosen by their colleagues is called a Teachers' Council, or a Teachers' Interest Committee. The latter is a misnomer if the task before the Teachers' Interest Committee is to help in the making of decisions affecting school administration and school policy. The Teachers' Council serves the school as a whole, the best interests of the children, not alone the interests of teachers. Typical decisions it may have to make in collaboration with the principal will concern agenda for teacher meetings, procedures for children entering the building and going to their rooms, class grouping of pupils, a parent interview schedule, teacher program loads, school dismissals, pupil referrals to office, and a host of others.

We needn't dwell at length here on the advantages of having teachers participate in the decisions affecting their work with the children. Evidences are numerous in other lines of endeavor, particularly in business, that, if those who are concerned with working out policies are given a hand in their making, there will be a consequent rise in morale which will definitely improve production. This is no less true in education. A rise in teacher morale redounds to the benefit of the school program.

Those of us who are giving the Teachers' Council a real and sincere try are finding progress slow and somewhat rough. There are difficulties. One is that service on the Council involves some extra time after school or at home. Another is that decisions are somewhat slow in evolving. These difficulties are to be expected in the transition from sole control to group control. If the work of the Council proves vital, as it should in time, teachers will not mind giving of their time. As for the slow evolution of decisions, we should be mindful that democratic decisions are always slow but they prove best in the long run.

The greatest difficulty, however, is the lack of understanding that the average teacher has of the nature of school administration and its manifold responsibilities. This does not preclude the assumption that teachers should be partners with the principal in the formulation of school policy. It merely states a fact. It is the reason why many of our teachers feel that a principal works with a Teachers' Council merely to cast off some responsibilities which he prefers to shirk. It is the reason why teachers in the Council do not always make decisions that are for the best interests of the school as a whole.

This difficulty will also ease in time. Experience will play its part. As teachers become convinced of the worth-whileness of the work of the Teachers' Council, they will increase the understandings necessary for sound decisions. They will also take in-service courses in preparation for more effective participation in school administration.—*Henry Antell*.

~~SOME~~ COMMENTS ON TEACHERS' COUNCILS

² In the April issue, too, teachers began to ask for the organization of councils in schools where the principal was opposed to their existence.

The Committee to Strengthen Education for Democracy has printed several articles describing Teachers' Councils already functioning on different levels of our school system. These articles have encouraged experimentation with various methods to improve teacher-supervisory relationships. The Committee has received many communications commending this program. Some correspondents have indicated a desire for a more rapid experimentation with Teachers' Councils.

One correspondent writes

We envy the teachers in schools where in the words of Superintendent Jansen . . . "planning the work . . . is a co-operative enterprise for all the the participants." In our school the principal evidently does not believe that education for democracy lays on individuals an obligation to share actively . . . in formulating general policies, nor does he believe in the principle that pooled judgment of interested and informed teachers is in the long run the wisest. Suppose a principal refuses to permit a Council to be organized—what then?

Another teacher writes

The publication of brave statements such as the Lindlof Report, Dr. Jansen's radio speech, and your first issue, unless followed by some concrete evidence of action, will confirm the feeling of many teachers that they are being fed the form and not the substance of democratic living. Unless impressive steps are taken for implementation, the professionally minded teachers in some schools are in danger of being overwhelmed with a sense of futility and despair.

A third teacher suggests

You cannot dispel the attitudes of years with words, well intentioned and commendable though they may be. Something more is needed which I should like to suggest for study and exploration by your Committee. Some method should be devised systematically to collect and evaluate the reactions of teachers to Teachers' Councils. Plans should be made to overcome the apathy of teachers and the hostility of some supervisors. Meetings between teachers and supervisors might examine areas where co-operation between them will be helpful to our purpose—making our schools more democratic. Unquestionably, it is a big job, but it is a job worth doing.

Dr. Jansen's Letter to "Strengthening Democracy"

April 11, 1949

Your correspondents, who desire more rapid progress in the set-up of Teachers' Councils in our schools, are impatient with the lag between the expressed philosophy of democratic administration and actual practice. We at the Board of Education are aware of this condition, for we know that practices in our schools differ widely. At the same time Councils should not be set up by mandate. The articles in *Strengthening Democracy* are stimulating healthy discussion. Many faculty conferences have been held to discuss more active partnership between teachers

and supervisors. We know that progress is being made in exploring the possibilities of more democratic teacher-supervisory relationships. We at the Board of Education are giving more than lip service to the development of democratic and co-operative teacher-supervisory and parent-school relationships.

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

In May one of the assistant superintendents in charge of thirty-four schools called the first district-wide teachers' council meeting of representatives of school councils to exchange views and share experiences on the subject of teacher participation in school administration. The following questions were discussed at this meeting:

What method of election will insure a truly representative teachers' council? How can time be found for council work? What school policies and what school problems can be considered within the purview of a teachers' council? What problems and policies are outside the realm of council decision? How can council contributions be made more constructive? What can be done in schools where principals do not permit councils?

It is significant to note that principals in some schools which did not have a teachers' council arranged for such organizations in order that their schools might be represented at this district meeting: In the October and November issues of *Strengthening Democracy*, the subject of democratic administration was extended to a discussion of a city-wide teachers' council. Special conferences were held in the fall of 1949 by principals of elementary schools and by vocational high-school principals to discuss problems in democratizing school administrations.

Several important issues are now clear. Some teachers, especially the members of the New York Teachers' Guild (A.F. of T., Local #2), want the Board of Education to mandate the organization of a teachers' council in every school. They have held special meetings advising teachers how to organize and operate school councils. A model constitution of a teachers' council is supplied to teachers seeking such help.

Many teachers believe the democratic administration of schools ought not depend on the whim or benevolence of individual principals. Many school principals, though they profess themselves to be believers in democracy, feel that the Board of Education By-Law (reprinted below) places legal responsibility for administration in their hands and, therefore, are unable to support powerful teachers' councils in their schools.

ARTICLE XI—SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION BY-LAWS—*Functions and Duties of Principals et al. in Charge of Schools. Section 89.* Subject to the supervision of the assistant superintendent assigned in accordance with Section 41 of these By-Laws, the principal shall be the responsible administrative and pedagogical head of the school, and during the regular school sessions shall be responsible for the

instruction, direction, and control of all members of the supervising and teaching and custodial staffs constituting the organization of such school. He shall take all proper measures to carry out in his school all requirements of the Board of Education expressed in By-Laws, rules, regulations, and resolutions, and all instructions issued in pursuance thereof.

Other issues have arisen. Some principals and teachers feel it is possible to provide for democratic and co-operative teacher-supervisory activity without the formal organization of a teachers' council. Other principals would grant teachers a share of action in limited areas but insist on an absolute veto. Many New York City principals claim that their teachers have neither the desire nor the experience necessary for participation in school administration. Teachers reply that they have been infantilized for so long a period that they are naturally apathetic and lack the training to be helpful in school administration. Such teachers ask that they be given an opportunity to show their interest and to acquire experience by participating in limited areas of school administration. Supervisors complain of the apathy of teachers when faced with the opportunity to share in planning school policy. Some complain that time in the regular day is not found for teachers already overworked, who are now being asked to participate in the discussion of administrative problems of schools. Only large schools can afford to free teachers for such activity during the school session. Occasionally one meets the argument that administrators are paid for their responsibilities and should not pass them on to overburdened teachers. Supervisors, too, can be found who have no fundamental faith in the ability of their teachers to help in school administration. Such people often have little or no faith in democracy or democratic processes.

Despite the alleged obstacles to teacher participation in school administration, there has been a steady growth in the number of teachers' councils organized in New York City schools. While there is greater evidence of organized activity in secondary schools where teachers' councils have had a long history, interest in such councils is found in all divisions of New York City schools. Teachers and supervisors in increasing numbers are accepting the principle that those who are affected by an administrative policy should have a voice in determining that policy. Many of the schools are becoming aware of the dynamic power of group thinking and co-operative effort in school procedures.

A SURVEY

While some school administrators are hesitating to encourage teachers' councils or are absolutely opposed to or afraid of their organization, others are developing worth-while experiences in dealing with such groups. A recent

survey made by this writer in selected schools reveals many democratic practices.

Teacher conferences consist of reports by duly chosen committees. . . . Routine matters are often presented in mimeographed form, as are reports, so that they may be studied before the meeting. . . . Conferences are planned by a committee of teachers. . . . The teachers council is given time to present matters for discussion. The discussion usually challenges a large number of teachers to participate. . . . The principal is a participant but never the chairman. This term he has spoken for a total of ten minutes. . . . A place on the agenda is always open to any member of the faculty. . . . The principal's point of view has often been vigorously and openly opposed by members of the faculty, without their status in the school having been affected.

The Teachers' Council is elected by secret ballot. . . . It meets frequently without any administrative official present. . . . It has a regular place on faculty conferences. . . . It elects its own chairman, who is invited by the principal to sit in at all cabinet meetings called by the principal.

The faculty understand they can write or speak to the committee on any matter. . . . The teachers' council through its chairman has access to organizational data, such as building assignments, programs, allowances, etc. . . . The teachers council voted, and the principal adopted, a plan of rotating all assignments (except that of administrative assistant) after five years. . . . The principal often refers problems to the teachers' council for advice. The teachers' council has been asked to make a study of the needs of slow learners.

General Administrative Matters—The administration always accepts criticism. "I have always felt perfect freedom about criticizing anything to anyone. For example, I felt perfectly free to complain about a chairman, not my own, against whom I had a grievance". . . . The school calendar, clerical procedures, and all teacher assignments are adopted after review by the teachers' council. The school's marking system was adopted after many conferences in which teachers took a major part. Their vote determined school policy. . . . A faculty referendum was held on the advisability of shortening the official period. . . . The teachers' council makes frequent recommendations for school betterment. . . . The teachers' council is consulted frequently. Numerous recommendations have been accepted. Only in rare cases has the principal rejected a suggestion voted by the teachers' council.

Conclusions—The composite picture of wholesome and democratic practices in some of the schools indicates what can be done in schools where the principal does more than give lip service to democratic ideals. It indicates that the legal argument that responsibility may not be shared is merely a ration-

alization, a defense mechanism, of those whose ego drives have no place for sharing power with others. The Board of Education in New York City and elsewhere should modernize and democratize its by-laws to authorize and encourage teacher co-operation in school administration. In the meantime, many wise administrators of New York City schools are reducing the time lag between their professed democratic expression of the right of teachers to participate in formulating school policy and the actual introduction of plans, procedures, and machinery necessary for such participation.

Administrators must, in the words of Overstreet's *The Mature Mind*, stop using "immature ways of solving problems that should be solved in ways that are mature." Without abdicating their responsibility for leadership and guidance, principals should ever be mindful of the fact that their chief task is to mould their staff into a working team. In Overstreet's words, administrators must not "hold the average individual (teacher) in a condition of immature dependence." Only through democratic administrative practices can teacher morale be kept high. Teachers, who are treated as mature adults who are important in their own right, who are participants in formulating school policy, can be expected to make enthusiastic and effective efforts to teach their children the democratic and American way of life.

Congress to Convene January Third

The second session of the 81st Congress will convene January 3 with the status of Federal-aid-to-education legislation standing exactly as it did when the first session adjourned October 19, 1949. The Senate, having passed S246, will not return to further consideration of the measure until after the House has passed a Federal-aid bill. House hearings will not be required in 1950 inasmuch as those held during the first session continue to stand. The next step in the House is for the Committee on Education and Labor to be given an opportunity to meet to dispose of pending Federal-aid bills. The NEA continues to support S246 which authorizes \$300,000,000 a year, under state and local control, to help the states more nearly equalize educational opportunities.

As Congress convenes, the National Education Association stresses: (1) the importance of sharing vital information with parent-teacher associations, civic clubs, lay leaders, the press and radio, and local and state political leaders—a task that falls in a primary way upon state and local education associations; and (2) Federal-aid activities planned as a definite part of the program of work of each local education association during the current school year.

Administrative Policies and Practices in Larger California Three- and Four-Year High Schools

LOUIS GRANT BRANDES

FROM the time of the founding of the first settlements in America, education of the proper type and amount has been regarded as a necessity. The changing conditions of a progressing society have increased the extent of education until today it constitutes the most important business of the American people.

The administration of a modern secondary school is an important and complex business which necessitates careful planning and delegation of responsibility by the person in charge. It depends on such factors as state requirements, local board requirements, available funds, enrollment of the school, location of the community, community occupations, local traditions, plant facilities, and pupil abilities. These factors will differ with each school, so that no single plan of administrative organization would be satisfactory for all. However, the basic organization of all the schools can logically be expected to fall into one or more general plans, modified to meet the needs of a particular school system. If the administrative organization of a large number of school systems is examined and compared, information for planning new schools and making changes in existing ones can be obtained.

The fact that our society is continually changing is often forgotten in the administration of our schools. There is always the danger that the administrative organization will follow a traditional pattern that has proved to be satisfactory, without any regard for new growth and development. To avoid such danger, each school system might well evaluate its educational program in terms of what other schools are doing.

In making plans for the administrative organization of a new high school and in planning appropriate changes in the administrative organization of the existing high school, the Alameda School Department, Alameda, California, was well aware of the need for evaluation. Placing a second high

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school into operation would necessitate changes in school personnel such as to provide for an efficient and functional administrative organization which would most nearly meet the needs of youth. Thus, a study was proposed to survey the existing policies and practices in large California high schools.

For this study a questionnaire was formulated and mailed to the 105 principals of three- and four-year California high schools of over 1,000 enrollment. Returns were received from ninety-four schools. Ninety-one of these returns were considered usable and three were discarded. The questionnaire included forty-one items concerning the practices and policies related to school routine, guidance functions, curriculum functions, and general organization. It made use of the checklist, multiple choice, short answer, and suggestion techniques, requiring approximately fifteen minutes to complete. The findings of this study offer several challenging revelations to the teachers and administrators of our high schools.

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The status of the guidance programs of our larger high schools is somewhat confused. From a total of eighty-six schools reporting on the officer in charge of the guidance program, forty-eight schools reported the responsibility delegated to a "director of guidance." The officer was referred to by eleven different titles. The titles of delegated officers in eighteen schools included the vice principal, administrative assistant, deans, curriculum and guidance director, and curriculum co-ordinator. In only a few of the schools was this duty delegated to one of the deans. In two schools the responsibility was assumed by the principal, while in twenty it was delegated to two or more persons.

The home room was found in a little over one half of the schools, but a larger number of these did not use it for guidance purposes. Only about a third of the schools indicated that they included a home room as part of the guidance program.

There were several ways reported of assigning pupils to counselors. Of eighty-eight schools reporting on this item, thirty-seven reported assigning the pupils to counselors by grade or class, twenty reported making assignment by home room, eight by vocational choice, and six indicated pupils were not assigned to counselors. Seventeen schools gave other methods of making this assignment.

The literature on counseling seems to be in general agreement on the ratio of one hundred pupils per counselor hour. The median California high school has met this standard; however, many of the schools have not. Pupil-counselor ratios of eighty-seven schools were computed by dividing the en-

rollment of the schools by the total number of hours of counseling reported by the school. The ratios of the schools were found to range from 19.3 to 465.8 pupils per counselor hour. The middle 50 per cent were between 72.8 and 126.0, and the median for the distribution was 96.4. The distribution was quite scattered, with a large number of schools represented in the upper limits. The data indicated that 55.4 per cent of the counseling was done by persons spending three periods or less each day on this duty, indicating that many schools do not have full-time counselors and that more than half of the counseling was done by persons spending half time or less on this assignment.

Many persons feel that counselors should have no administrative duties lest their counseling effectiveness be lessened. However, many schools have named administrative officers as one or more of the persons in charge of the guidance program, suggesting that it may be practical to combine both administrative duties and counseling in one individual without jeopardizing either.

THE CORE PROGRAM

It was found that the core course has not attained the success in California high schools attributed to it by some of the literature. Of eighty-eight schools reporting on this item, sixty-eight reported they did not have a core course, twenty schools reported that they did. Of the eighteen Los Angeles high schools returning completed questionnaires, twelve indicated that they had no core program and five indicated that they did have one. Of the original list of eleven co-operating schools given permission in 1934 by the California colleges and universities to go further with the core curriculum, only one of the seven schools contacted by the study reported a core course.

The attempt to introduce the core course into the California schools can hardly be considered as successful. However, too many experienced educators have studied and reflected upon the merits of the core program to write it off as not being a useful part of a school curriculum. The fact remains that "common learnings" programs are in use in many high schools of the country. In at least one school, where the program has worked successfully, it began with a few pupils whose parents approved of the program and gradually grew to include the entire student body. The careful planning of a long-range program, as done by this school, may provide the key for the success of a core program in many other schools.

The results of the study indicate forty-one ways in which the principals of large California secondary schools delegated the responsibility for the curriculum program. The fact that no one person was made responsible for the

major portion of the curriculum program and that numerous functionaries were designated as responsible for the program in forty-five schools indicates that as yet no predominate organization for curriculum development has been achieved by the majority of the schools studied.

COLLEGE PREPARATORY

The approximate per cent of pupils following a college program was reported by eighty-eight schools. The per cents ranged from five to ninety per cent, the middle half was between 23.5 and 55.4 per cent, and the median per cent was 32.6. This median per cent compares favorably to the twenty per cent required by the literature as the per cent of high-school pupils entering college. If this median figure is representative of the proportion of college subjects offered in the schools, it is an indication that the larger California high schools are making progress in vocational guidance. It can not be stated that the median per cent would always have a direct significance for the curriculum of an individual school, as the number of pupils taking a college program is partially dependent upon the location of the school. However, schools above this median per cent might well examine their schedule to see if they are offering a traditional college program to all pupils regardless of their future needs.

DEPARTMENT HEADS

Some of the current literature expresses the idea that department heads are being replaced by co-operative approaches allowing for group development. The idea that department heads no longer exist was not borne out by the study. A large majority of the schools reported subject department heads. That subject department heads still retain some authority and prestige is indicated by a majority of the schools reporting that department heads are released part time from teaching duties for the purpose of supervision. Possibly a study of the efficiency of departmental organization is needed.

ORIENTING NEW TEACHERS

Of the six parts of the item on the orientation of new teachers, the part, "Require the teacher to observe classroom instruction in the school," was checked by only eight schools. This seems a logical function of a teacher-orientation program. Perhaps the reason that so many schools did not require class observation by the new teacher was the reluctance on the part of the teachers to be observed at their work. Especially significant was the fact that few of the schools reported doing anything to orient part-time substitute teachers, other than to give them an outline of the courses they were expected to teach and a summary of the school organization and specific duties. It would

seem that the substitute teacher must be considerably handicapped in carrying out an assignment.

The officers reported in the administrative organization of the schools indicated a trend to replace the dean of boys, the dean of girls, and one vice-principal by two vice-principals. The one administrator released by such change appears to have been assigned to the guidance program. This latter arrangement should provide for more adequate handling of guidance and disciplinary duties.

COMMENTS ON ADMINISTRATIVE TECHNIQUES

Many of the persons filling out and returning the questionnaire included suggestions for establishing an administrative organization. Some of these comments are quoted below, as it is felt that they offer worthy suggestions and reflect the attitudes of the administrators of our larger high schools.

1. "Select an outstanding member of the faculty, and one who appeals to students, to advise the student governing board. This group is extremely important in setting morale of a new school. I had fun doing this ten years ago and I envy the person who gets the job. It has many satisfactions."

2. "Define school territorial boundaries and establish a definite policy on student transfers to eliminate athletic conflicts."

3. "Pick good people who aren't afraid to work and who wish to improve existing practices."

4. "We have a teachers' handbook of about seventy pages. It is well indexed and covers every phase of our many routine procedures. It saves writing many bulletins as it is constantly revised and kept up to date."

5. "If I had it to do over again, I would organize guidance on a home-room basis with the same pupils remaining with the same home-room teacher throughout their school days. In this school the program would be supervised by two full-time counselors. The home rooms would meet as often as necessary to make the home room successful. I would be sorely tempted to run my school on a five-period day with no study halls. I would want to set my cafeteria up as a laboratory in which vocational cooking could be taught. I would want an adequate shop program in which nonacademic pupils would obtain a large amount of their academic work in conjunction with manual activities. In other words, I would look upon my school as a laboratory in which every activity would contribute to the welfare of the pupil."

6. "The whole matter of clubs, activities, awards, student body funds and cards, faculty clubs, faculty rooms is a very important factor."

7. "The use of an assistant principal in addition to boys' and girls' vice principals has merit in schools above 1500 enrollment."

8. "I would suggest that your administrative organization be one principal, one vice principal, one dean of boys (or boys' vice principal), and one dean of girls (or girls' vice principal) for a high school over 1000 ADA."

9. "Try to get a clear understanding of the fields to be served by guidance people and those to be served by deans and sub-administrators."

10. "Whoever has the opportunity to organize a new high school should consider himself fortunate in that he can, at the start, formulate a curriculum that meets the needs of pupils, thereby not being bound to tradition."

SUMMARIZING THE STUDY

A brief summary of the findings of the study are indicated as follows:

1. The pupil-teacher ratios for the larger California high schools, when computed from the total enrollment and total number of certificated school personnel, range from 16.3 to 41.9, have the middle fifty per cent between 22.0 and 24.5, and have a median of 22.9 pupils per teacher.

2. The number of four-year senior high schools exceed the number of three-year high schools by three, the latter being concentrated in urban districts.

3. Most¹ of the schools are using a six-period day, though considerable attention is given to the seven-period day.

4. Most of the high schools provide a nonteaching period for their teachers, exclusive of study-hall periods.

5. Most of the high schools limit the teaching load of their teachers to five periods per day, inclusive of study-hall periods.

6. A majority of the schools provide a full time "director of guidance" in charge of the guidance program.

7. A majority of the schools provide a home-room program of some nature.

8. The primary purpose of the home room is to provide for guidance functions.

9. Few of the high schools conduct a core course.

10. The most common method of assigning pupils to counselors is by grade or class, though considerable attention is given to assignment by home room and alphabetical order.

11. Most of the schools offer an orientation course for pupils.

12. Most of the schools provide a guidance handbook for distribution to pupils.

¹ Most equals over 75 per cent; majority equals over 50 per cent to 75 per cent; and few equals less than 25 per cent.

13. A majority of the schools place the responsibility on the counselor for making out the pupil programs.

14. Most of the schools assign a certificated person to the program.

15. A majority of the schools delegate less than a half-time person to the testing program.

16. Most of the schools hold regular guidance meetings exclusive of faculty meetings.

17. A majority of schools make some provision for job placement of pupils after graduation.

18. The pupil-counselor ratios for eighty-seven schools, computed from the total enrollment and total number of hours of counseling time, range from 19.3 to 465.8, have the middle fifty per cent between 72.8 and 126.0, and have a median of 96.4.

19. No predominant curriculum organization has been developed within the schools.

20. The percentages of pupils following a college preparatory program as given by approximations range from five to ninety per cent, have the middle one half between 23.5 and 55.4 per cent, and have a median of 32.6 per cent.

21. Most of the schools have subject department heads.

22. Most of the schools have regular curriculum meetings, exclusive of faculty meetings, for the purpose of improvement of the curriculum.

23. A majority of the schools release subject department heads or chairmen of departments one or more periods from their teaching duties for the purpose of supervision.

24. It is the policy of a majority of the schools to provide subject matter assignments in academic subjects which include some home work.

25. In a majority of the schools the principal retains the bulk of the responsibility for the orientation of new teachers.

26. Most of the schools introduce their new teachers personally to members of the faculty, give them a summary of the school organization and specific duties, and give them an outline plan of courses they are expected to teach; a majority of the schools take them on a tour of the buildings and grounds and offer them organized assistance in finding desirable places to live.

27. Few of the schools require their new teachers to observe classroom instruction in their schools.

28. A majority of the schools provide their part-time substitute teachers with an outline plan of courses they are expected to teach and a summary of

the school organization and specific duties; few schools take them on a tour of the buildings and grounds, introduce them to the faculty, require them to observe classroom instruction in the school, or give them organized assistance in finding desirable places to live.

29. The most common method of delegating the responsibility for attendance is to divide it among two or more members of the staff, though assignment to an "attendance officer" is nearly as common.

30. Most of the schools have more than one person delegated to write pupil excuses after an absence or tardiness, though one of these is usually an attendance clerk.

31. A majority of the schools have two vice principals.

32. In a majority of the schools, the officer in charge of visual aids is a teacher who is probably released for one or two periods from teaching duties.

33. In a majority of the schools, the officer in charge of student government is a teacher who is probably released for one or two periods from teaching duties.

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Administrative Challenges

E. G. ROGERS

TODAY education is challenging and being challenged in ways heretofore unknown. We have just emerged from the most tragic war in the world's history. We are yet confused and astounded at the immensity and tragedy of that conflict. Haunted still by the shadows which stalked us when the battle clouds lifted, we are trying to face in another direction with courage when a sense of direction has almost been lost. We are trying to heal wounds more angry than any which the world has ever before suffered. We are trying to establish a sense of propriety among the nations of the earth when we can scarcely define for our next-door neighbor what is good and proper. We are trying feebly to keep hold on a faith in God which was either found or lost in the rocket's red glare of a sodden battlefield. We are trying to make amends for a faith which amounted to mockery when about the silent altars of our homes we failed to instill into our sons abiding truths which would suffice not only to bring them home from war but which would be enduring enough to guide them ultimately to that Home Eternal.

And today, because we as parents, teachers, social workers, and even the ministry, are standing at the crossroads of confusion and hesitation; we have become as the World-Pilgrim of John Bunyan who broke out with a lamentable cry, saying, "What shall I do?" to which the Evangelist, pointing with his finger over a wide world, asked, "Do you see yonder wicket gate?" and to which the Pilgrim answered, "No." Then said the other, "Do you see yonder shining light?" He said, "I think I do." Then said the Evangelist, "Keep that light in your eye, and go directly up thereto so that thou see the gate, at which when thou knockest, it shall be told thee what thou shalt do." And until we can again begin to follow the gleam of light which

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we have, even our leaders shall be voices crying in the wilderness with no voice but a cry.

Our youth now stand at the threshold of the future. They are hopeful, but they are confused. Yet there are certain suggestions which we would offer as being helpful in their behalf. First, let us restore to them the basis for a confidence and trust in the bounteous goodness of God. Let us do this by making our personal lives attractive and inspiring, emulating those great truths which come only from the Great heart of God. Let us put our own homes on a God-loving, awe-inspiring basis of consecrated living where the Bible is taught, where the truth is exemplary, and where lives touch one another again where touching matters. Let us keep in mind that the home is like a barometer. If things go right in the home, they go right everywhere; if they go wrong in the home, they go wrong everywhere. We must remember still that the doorsill of the home is the foundation of the state; for a man never gets higher than the garret of his home, nor ever sinks lower than its cellar.

Second, let us encourage the defining of those social, economic, governmental, and regulatory functions which have to do so pertinently with our daily lives so that our young people, along with the rest of us, may the more easily understand to which area this or that function of living is allocated. It is annoyingly obvious that the radio and the press have, at times, only tended to confuse rather than to clarify the issues.

Third, let us re-encourage and reinspire great living through the channels of the elementary schools, the high schools, and the colleges of America. This must come through the leadership of great and good men and women whose daily lives are charged with great truths which come from a closer consciousness of the Greater Good. Teaching must be put on such a basis as will bring to the classrooms, the campuses, and the cloistered halls men and women of exalted character. And irrespective of what the other factors may be, but including them all, the guiding and co-ordinating influence in meeting these challenges must be our institutions of higher learning throughout the land. This is a challenge possessing both immediacy and urgency.

Fourth, let us come, as hastily and as sensibly as we may, to a realization of a "freedom from fear" which is as yet responsible for much of the anticipation, anxiety, and unrest which today is disturbing many of our long-cherished dreams that the nations of the earth might some day dwell in peace. When we have placed statesmanship and diplomacy on that high level where none shall feel that the next move is a part of the game of the

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body-politic or is inspired by big business on an international scale, we shall have done something toward removing those ills which propagandize and dogmatize the least blessings of humanity. "Beginning first in Jerusalem" is yet a sound doctrine; but to the young man who has just returned from over there, things at home will not look right to him anymore until that danger out there is alleviated which threatens his safety and security at home.

And fifth, let Tennyson remind us again that "more things are wrought by prayer than this world dreams of." It is psychologically natural that we relax from the intensities which characterized the war years through which we have just come. Even in our prayer-life we were extremely anxious that the loved one out there might return safely and that God's Will be done. And now, with an equal ardor for the Greater Good, and in gratitude for previous blessings, we must again find at the feet of God encouragement for nobler living in each tomorrow. In meeting these challenges will be found that coveted joyousness in successful and objective living. This is the challenge to our leadership in institutions of learning everywhere.

SHE NEVER KNOWS

(Continued from page 132)

Interruptions may not impede the normal progress of the school office. Correspondence, reports, requisitions, and usual daily matters continue on. The general direction of the duties of the assistant secretaries is handled by the senior secretary. At the same time, her mind carries all additional unexpected matters she never knows beforehand. A lull in mental alertness is a novel experience for any senior secretary.

From the foregoing, it is evident that the senior secretary in the secondary school does not reside in a furrow of serenity. Her human relations are ever free from the tinge of stagnation. Her house of challenge is constantly under construction. Renovations are made day after day through unexpected happenings. The senior secretary never knows the obstacle or delay to be surmounted; she never knows the smooth paving on her highway of challenge. She does know that she must keep building her house of challenge on firm ground through developing co-operation among all, creating and maintaining efficiency in her own work and that of her associates, and in encouraging personalities that win while they work.

The senior secretary never knows the challenge—she accepts it in every form of school duties and school associations. Well has she earned the title, "The Champion of All."

Union or Regional High Schools

A. RUSSELL MACK

SEVERAL states in the United States, notably Connecticut and New York, have made real progress in the establishment of regional or consolidated high schools, in which two or more towns combine to erect a high-school building, with each town's share of the capital investment, as well as the operating expense when the school is functioning, previously determined.

There are many benefits under such a plan. Two towns, for example, which are contiguous, instead of building two separate high schools, one in each town, erect just the one. Instead of necessitating *two* auditoriums, *two* gymnasiums, *two* school libraries, *two* household arts departments, *two* industrial arts departments, *two* shops, *two* cafeterias, *etc.*, there is only one in each case. There are corresponding benefits with relation to the school personnel and school program. The larger the school, the more likely that the salary scale will be higher, and, therefore, tenure and continuity of the work should be better. With a larger school, it is possible to have a greater spread of courses in the various subject fields. The small school is likely to be limited to academic classes. The extremely small class, sometimes even less than five pupils, not too unusual in small high schools in Massachusetts, can be eliminated in the larger school. The per pupil cost is not as high in a larger school as compared with a small one. There is an increased opportunity for music, art, extracurricular activities, *etc.* Moreover, with the improvement of roads and school busses, the transportation needs can be well met. On the part of the pupils of two such towns, for example, there is a feeling of "belongingness," which perhaps is not possible where there are resident pupils and tuition pupils. The nonresident pupils may sometimes feel that they are "outlanders."

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There are certain difficulties which come at once to the minds of all of us. There is a certain irrevocability about the establishment of a union high school. With a substantial part of the capital investment owned by each of the towns, withdrawal is practically impossible. Then there are the details of the site and the proportionment of the capital cost, the establishment of a representative committee to act as a building committee and later a joint committee to determine the policies of the school, election of teachers, selection of courses, *etc.* There is the necessary arrangement for collecting the taxes from the two or more towns for such a school district and the payment of bills. It is obvious that, if two towns are involved, checks for teachers could not be made by the two separate town treasurers.

In Massachusetts, although the Statute, G.L. Chapter 71, Section 14, High School Districts, permitting the establishment of union high schools has been in existence for many years, there has never been such a school organized. Massachusetts has many high schools where there are tuition pupils, however, from adjoining towns. For the most part these seem to work out satisfactorily. The writer knows of no cases where there is any justification for the claim that there has been discrimination against out-of-town pupils. It may be, too, that the name of the school can be a factor in increasing the feeling of "belongingness." For example, the public high school at Shelburne Falls is Arms Academy, and nearly seventy-five per cent of the pupils are tuition pupils, coming from towns about Shelburne. The fact that it is Arms Academy rather than Shelburne High School may mean that pupils of other towns have a feeling of "belongingness" which they might otherwise not have. However, unless this matter is called to their attention, or some issue has developed it, the writer doubts if it is very much in the minds of tuition pupils at any high school.

It is true that we "worship town lines" too much in Massachusetts. It is true also that Massachusetts has too many small high schools. There are eleven under fifty pupils, and forty-five under 100 pupils. The optimum size of a high school is probably about 800 pupils. A small high school may mean inefficiency in program and classes, and a very much larger high school borders on the "factory method" of education. In Massachusetts the median high school is about 226 pupils, although the average is about 650 pupils.

It should always be realized that in Massachusetts the citizens take a tremendous pride in the local prerogative and the local initiative of the 351 towns and cities. There is the conviction in a small town that giving up its small high school will mean the loss of all community life; also that citizens cannot so easily see "their own in action." Other states have had a more

aggressive attitude on a statewide basis in determining which towns might well establish union high schools. There certainly should be consideration of the over-all picture. There already exists a precedent including legislation for districts to include several towns in Health, Airports, and Veterans' Service.

There is activity in several areas in Massachusetts where certain towns have committees investigating the advisability of establishing a union high school. These may well be watched with considerable interest. Socially, economically, educationally, and financially, the idea is sound. The difficulty is in the working out of the details and going beyond town lines. The opportunity is lost for years if two or more towns, which might well build a union high school, give it no thought and build separate schools.

THE BIRTH RATE AND THE SCHOOLS

More children are now enrolled in the elementary schools of the United States than ever before in history. Next year the number will be even larger. In fact, it appears probable that enrolments in elementary schools will continue to increase annually for another decade. Enrolments in the nation's secondary schools will begin to grow about two years hence and may be expected to continue to increase at least until 1960. Ten years from now the total enrolments of elementary and secondary schools in the United States will be 25 to 30 per cent larger than it is at present.

The basic reason for recent and prospective increases in school enrolments is the spectacular increase in the birth rate since 1940. The "war babies" of 1942 and 1943 are the first- and second-grade pupils of the current school year. Millions more children will soon be knocking at the doors of the nation's schools. The oncoming flood of school children can be gauged from the record of births for the past twelve years as compiled by the National Office of Vital Statistics:

Year	Registered Live Births	Year	Registered Live Births
1938	2,286,962	1944	2,794,800
1939	2,265,588	1945	2,735,456
1940	2,360,399	1946	3,288,672
1941	2,513,427	1947	3,699,940
1942	2,808,996	1948 ^a	3,559,000
1943	2,934,860	1949 ^b	3,592,800

^a Figures for 1948 are preliminary.

^b Figures for 1949 are estimated by projecting the preliminary totals for the first seven months of this year on the basis of comparison with the corresponding months of 1948.

Whether the schools of 1959 will have to take care of 34 million children and youth (as the Census Bureau estimated last year) or whether they will have 35 to 36 million (as is more likely if present birth rates hold their own) cannot be stated for sure. What is certain, however, barring the occurrence of an epidemic or disaster of cataclysmic proportions or entirely unforeseeable emigration, is that when the children born between 1942 and 1949 are nearly all in school—as they will be by the fall of 1955—the total enrolment of the nation's elementary and secondary schools will exceed present enrolments by more than six million.—(Statement by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators.)

Organization and Administration of Veterans' Education Centers in Secondary Schools

WILMER C. CARLE

VETERANS' education centers in secondary schools in Minneapolis were established under the provisions of Public Law 346 and its amendments. The growth of this service for veterans both in Minneapolis and throughout the country and its unique position as a small school system made it worthy of study. A voluntary adult population which had a wide variety of experiences in the armed services and was making its readjustment to civil life was itself a novelty to public schools. No formal study of the organization and administration of veterans' centers was found in the literature about veterans' education in various communities in the country.

This study was an investigation of three veterans' education centers in Minneapolis. Its purposes were to study: (1) their organization and administration, (2) the nature of the curriculum, (3) the guidance program, (4) the instructional techniques, and the adaptation of the afore-mentioned to the peculiar needs of veterans. In addition certain characteristics of veterans and their effect upon the organization and the instruction were also investigated.

THE METHOD

A preliminary survey of veterans' education in Minneapolis revealed that the three centers located in Marshall, North, and West High Schools were under one administrative head. The centers are designated by the letters A, B, and C respectively. The nature of the curriculum offered in these schools was academic. The study was limited to the day schools because the administration of day schools more nearly approximated that of a regular high school than did that of evening and night schools.

The required information concerning organization, administration, and curriculum of the centers was secured from the principal by the use of an

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interview form. In order to secure information about administration and the guidance program, an interview form was prepared for the counselors. To obtain information about administration, curriculum, guidance program, and instructional method, an interview form was prepared for the teachers. In no case was an interview form mailed to a subject for completion. The construction of the questions of the afore-mentioned forms required that they be answered objectively.

Information concerning the administration of veterans' centers was secured from the central office by orally questioning responsible officials. The questions were concerned with dates the veterans' centers commenced operation, records of veterans maintained by the central office, reports about the veterans' centers which the central office received from the centers, reports which the central office submitted to other agencies, how the centers were financed, and the functions of the superintendent. The characteristics about the student population and their effect upon administration and the instructional methods was determined by a study of the records maintained by the counselors in each center.

The veterans enrolled in the centers fell into two general classifications: those who had not graduated from high school and those who were already high-school graduates. The former are called "nongraduates" and the latter "postgraduates" in this report.

The office of each veterans' center maintained a Credit Card for every veteran, begun at the time of enrollment. The card provided space for the following information: (1) name, (2) address, (3) birthdate, (4) subjects to be taken by semester, (5) date entered, (6) date completed, (7) semester mark, and (8) teacher's signature. Notation was made on each card of the classification of the student. Notation was made also when the veteran left the center. If the student had completed the work for which he enrolled, the counselor wrote on the card "completed." If he dropped out before completion of the courses for which he enrolled, "incomplete" was written on the card.

An attempt was made to study only cards of those veterans who were in school within the same period of time, but it was discovered that one center had been in existence longer than the other two; hence a different period of time for study was employed for the latter two schools' use in this study.

When a veteran left the center, his credit card was placed in the inactive file. The cards of veterans whose stay in the centers was within the dates under study were counted to obtain the total enrollment for each

center. In Schools A and C the total number of veterans who completed their programs and the total number of veterans who had not completed their programs were determined by counting the cards which were marked "complete" and "incomplete." Since School B did not indicate "complete" or "incomplete" on the cards, the totals of these were impossible to determine for that school.

From this initial survey of the cards, it was found that the enrollment in the centers was too large to permit a study of all cards, therefore a method for obtaining a sample was employed. It was decided to use a sample of fifty cards from each center, selecting them in alphabetical order. The cards used in the sample were only those of veterans who were in school between the dates under study and had completed the work in at least one subject. The subjects not completed were disregarded. In School A, the number of cards which met the above qualifications was large enough to permit the use of every fifth card. In Schools B and C, the number of cards which met the qualifications was too small to provide the requisite sample by using every fifth card; hence every second card was used. Since this did not yield a sample of 50, the "incomplete" cards which had been discarded were segregated and arranged alphabetically and every second card of this group was used until a sample of 50 had been secured for each school. From the three samples of fifty cards, the ages of veterans upon enrollment, length of time spent in school, the choice of subjects, and the length of time spent completing each subject were tallied according to the classification of the student, nongraduate or postgraduate.

The nature of the responses to the interview forms made tabulation as objective data possible. The teacher group was sufficiently large to allow tabulations of responses to be expressed as percentages. Because there were only three counselors, their responses were not expressed in percentage form. The data secured from the credit cards in the samples were tabulated. Percentages, measures of central tendency, and ranges were computed as seemed appropriate.

FINDINGS

On approval of the State Department of Education, the Minneapolis Board of Education entered upon a contract with the Veterans Administration to provide educational services to veterans on the basis of a rate of thirty cents per hour per man. As a result, veterans' education centers were established in four high schools and a veterans' counseling service was inaugurated. The three centers which provided academic education for veterans wishing a

high-school diploma and (or) college preparation were located in three strategic positions in the city. The locations were determined by a committee on the basis of accessibility for veterans and availability of space. The centers were located in adjacent rooms in a single wing of each building wherever possible and were for the exclusive use of veterans. Classrooms of the regular high school were used only when the need for special equipment made it necessary; *i.e.* typing, chemistry, and physics rooms.

These three centers were supervised by a principal who was in addition the principal of the regular high school in which the largest of the veterans' centers was located. The organization of the program was flexible, with the principal using the "line and staff" technique, the direct approach to any counselor or teacher, or co-operative measures.

The duties of the principal of the centers were: (1) organization and installation of a program of instructional materials, (2) procurement of supplies, (3) selection of new centers when necessary, (4) selection of teachers and other personnel, (5) development of a system of records, (6) supervision of the guidance program in the centers, (7) supervision of the teachers and the over-all administration of the centers.

The assistant to the principal carried out specific duties assigned by the principal in addition to teaching one class per day. Most often these consisted of procurement of supplies for teachers and veterans and co-operation with and assistance to the individual teachers. Teachers and counselors were obtained from the Minneapolis system. The principal indicated that his selections were based on the criteria of ability to mix with adults and richness of out-of-school background. The centers tried to maintain a ratio of one teacher for every fifteen students.

Student objectives for which instruction in the Minneapolis veterans' education centers was geared were mainly two, high-school diplomas or equivalency certificates and college preparation. Students fell into either of two classifications: nongraduates (without a high-school diploma), and postgraduates (with a high-school diploma). The criteria which determined the subject offerings were the interests and needs of veterans and the requirements for a high-school diploma. Counselors and some of the teachers reported that they assisted the principal in the selection of the subjects to be offered in the centers.

Requirements which a veteran had to meet before he could be enrolled included the following: residency in Minnesota, a Certificate of Eligibility, and at least a ninth-grade education or its equivalent. The day school was conducted six hours a day, five days a week. A veteran could enroll for

full-time or half-time work. He was allowed to study one subject, but not more than two subjects at any time. The subjects he selected were based upon his grade placement as determined by previous school records, service educational experience credits evaluated, and (or) tests administered by the counselor. Indoctrination of each new student in the customs of the center was done informally by the counselors and teachers. Veterans were allowed two fifteen-minute recesses per day for relaxation and smoking. They were allowed to smoke outside the school building.

One counselor was assigned to each center. Their functions were mainly: (1) maintaining a system of records, (2) counseling veterans about educational and vocational objectives, (3) determining grade placement of veterans, (4) assisting veterans to prepare a program of studies (5) referring necessary cases to the Veterans' Administration Guidance Center, (6) supervising a testing program, (7) handling details of formal enrollment, (8) assisting in the selection of subjects to be offered by the centers, and (9) counseling veterans who were behavior problems. Supplies were furnished each student by his subject teacher and returned to the teacher when the veteran terminated his work in the center.

Equivalency certificates were awarded veterans who passed the tests administered in the Guidance Center though the candidate lacked credits enough to meet the requirements of a high-school diploma. Veterans who completed the required number of credits of work necessary for a diploma were awarded diplomas either informally or at commencement exercises of the regular high school which they last attended.

Teaching was by tutorial method with each veteran proceeding at his own rate of speed. By its very nature, it helped provide for individual differences, but in addition the teachers reported other techniques of helping to provide for differences in interests, abilities, and needs among their students. Some of the techniques most frequently reported were: (1) variation of the materials, text, and course to meet individual needs and abilities, (2) special drill work. Teachers used standardized achievement tests and committee-made tests to measure progress and achievement. Teachers' judgment or quality and quantity of written work completed by the students were additional bases for progress reports. The teachers as a group reported that they studied the problems of teaching veterans in a group at monthly meetings and at departmental meetings and as individuals by observation of the effectiveness of their methods and by the reading of articles in professional literature.

In general, teachers indicated that their counseling duties were minor ones. Veterans who became behavior problems were referred to the counselor

for guidance, not disciplining. All teachers agreed that no problem involving behavior serious enough to warrant disciplinary action had arisen. Three fifths of the teachers considered that counseling students about their choice of subject and progress in their work was an important part of their duties. Over ninety per cent of the teachers sought assistance of the counselor for a variety of reasons. Most frequent of these were (1) problems with respect to individual students, and (2) advice on policies of the centers.

An important duty of teachers was that of keeping attendance, scholastic achievement, progress, and test-result records. They submitted reports to the counselor's office periodically and when veterans left the center.

In both schools studied, the percentage of veterans who did not complete their courses was quite large: for the nongraduates 40.6 per cent and 52.0 per cent for the postgraduates; 43.3 per cent and 31.6 per cent in Schools A and C respectively. One reason for the high percentage of nongraduates who dropped presumably was that they qualified for an equivalency certificate instead of earning enough credits for a diploma.

From the sample studied, it was found that the nongraduates as a group were a year younger than the postgraduates. The median age for all veterans was 21 years 7 months. The median time spent in school by both groups was approximately the same, 80 and 81 days respectively. The nongraduates as a rule chose subjects which were required for a high-school diploma—English and social studies being the most frequent choices. The graduates chose mathematics most frequently. The medians for the length of time spent studying one subject-matter area by both groups of students in School A ranged between 55 and 64 days. This held true for English, social studies, and mathematics.

The operation of the veterans' centers in Minneapolis was designed to give veterans an opportunity to complete requirements for a high-school diploma in as short a time as possible. The program was planned for intensive rather than extensive study, with veterans working in two subjects at the most at any given time. The method of teaching allowed veterans to proceed at their own rate. The median number of class hours spent studying any one subject by veterans was comparable to the number of class hours spent by high-school students studying the same subject.

In the light of the many reasons for which veterans could drop out of the program, it can be considered that the number who did not complete was not excessive. That the program was working successfully and accomplishing the purpose for which it was established was accountable in no small measure to the efforts of the teachers, counselors, and administrators.

of the program. The evidence presented indicates that veterans' education centers were economically and efficiently organized. The organization allowed sufficient flexibility in the program to provide for contraction and expansion of enrollments and the demands of veterans for various subjects requiring additional facilities.

The administration of the centers was on a democratic basis. Teachers and counselors co-operated with the principal and his assistant in all the aspects of administration within the centers. Provisions made for veterans' education in Minneapolis Veterans' Education Centers compared favorably with provisions made in comparable systems throughout the country.

This study has been limited by the technique employed to collect the data. Responses to questions on the interview forms are frequently biased by attempts to present a favorable picture of the program. The description of the program was limited to the amount and type of data secured from interview forms and records kept in the counselors' offices. Aspects of the program, such as guidance, vocational training, library materials, classroom materials, and techniques of teaching, were omitted from this study.

If the Federal government would support regular public high schools to the same extent it has the veterans' education program, a great improvement would probably be made in them. More teachers with better professional training could be employed in the schools. This increased number of teachers would reduce the number of students per teacher thus making it possible for the teachers to give more attention to the individual needs of each student. Schools could expand their plants and increase the quantity and quality of materials of instruction. School curriculums could be based on students' needs instead of the amount of money in the schools' treasury. An improved system of guidance might help students to make wiser vocational and curriculum choices which would relieve them of excessive worry and unnecessary work. If studies show that veterans' programs have been successful and that high schools could use the same methods to advantage, it would be a great contribution to our educational system.

The Status and Duties of Department Heads

R. D. SHOUSE

A STUDY of practices in other high schools shows that, if there is a positive trend in one direction or the other, it is away from the use of department heads. However, department heads are used successfully in many schools, and a review of the situation in our school leads us to the conclusion that, if certain faults, more or less inherent in the departmental type of organization, can be avoided or minimized, good department heads can accomplish some things for us which now need improvement.

Although it is usually better to think of desirable and undesirable practices in positive terms, for the purposes of emphasizing the dangers of the departmental head setup, we are enumerating some which have been called to our attention by principals in other high schools and by outstanding leaders in the secondary administrative field.

There is the danger that the department head will become, as he has tended to become in many schools, the oldest teacher in the department. On the other hand, in schools in which leads have been selected by the teachers in the department, undesirable political cliques have sometimes resulted. The method of designating department heads must avoid both of these pitfalls. To be of value, the department head must, by virtue of superior teaching ability and of superior knowledge of people and of his subject field, be able to exert continuous leadership in his department.

The departmental type of organization has often resulted in the harmful compartmentalization of subject matter. The modern movement in education is toward the general education approach or the common learnings program. High schools should be so organized that teachers in all areas are encouraged to co-operate in integrating the contribution of all fields. The de-

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partment head should not be an extreme proponent of the comparative superior value of his department. He must have a broad view of the educational values of all fields.

There is a growing belief in the value of giving free time to counselors and to teachers for guidance or individual work with youngsters. We should not concentrate too much of the free teacher time, available to a staff in the hands of a few department heads.

There should not be department heads if they are permitted to deal in a dictatorial or autocratic manner with well-qualified, experienced teachers. Good teachers need freedom to work on their own initiative in order to do their best work and to be happy in their work. If a department head is to be of value to the school in the supervisory capacity, he must be a friendly, helping colleague who makes no pretense of having official prerogatives. A few additional specific cautions should be observed.

1. Visits to classrooms of teachers should be kept on a friendly basis and should usually be made only upon invitation. They should not be made for the purposes of inspection.
2. Be careful to avoid any acts which tend to restrict or to set the content of other teachers' courses beyond the minimum objectives set forth in the syllabi.
3. Respect the personalities and strong points of teachers. Sometimes supervisors try to get teachers to use methods of teaching or classroom management to which they are not by nature well adapted. They may be able to accomplish better results by use of other methods.
4. Discouragement of teachers and regimentation of their courses of study are likely results from unwise attempts to evaluate their work or to compare their effectiveness as teachers.

The above enumeration of faults or dangers might lead us to the conclusion that it would be better not to have department heads were it not for the further consideration that there are things to be done which we know of no other way to accomplish. The things listed below need doing.

How department heads may help.

1. Help teachers organize so that they can develop syllabi setting forth the objectives and minimum essentials of the courses which they teach.
2. Help new teachers. In addition to the instruction sheets and meetings which the principal's office uses to orient new teachers, the appointment of a big brother or sister for each new teacher is suggested. These experienced teachers should have adjoining rooms and should be teaching in the same field, if possible.
3. In comparatively large departments or in teaching areas (fine arts, industrial arts, language arts), the issuance of occasional bulletins or the use of

departmental meetings to call attention to new literature, to new ideas in the field, or to co-ordinate teaching efforts will be helpful.

4. Encourage experimentation by teachers in the department.

5. Share teaching problems with individual teachers in the department; such as, methods of presenting subject matter, selection of visual aids, and dealing with difficult pupil-control problems.

6. Consolidate departmental requisitions for the business office.

7. Organize teachers' committees for the selection of textbooks and reference books.

8. Organize teachers' committees to make certain that all available textbooks, reference books, and equipment are used economically.

9. Advise with the principal and the superintendent in the matter of qualifications of new teachers needed in the department.

10. Help teachers evaluate their own work.

11. The weaknesses of teachers are more obvious than their strong points. Supervisors should forget the weaknesses and center their attention upon finding and building upon the capabilities and strong points.

Conference on Educational Travel

"The World is Our Campus" has been announced as the theme for the Conference on Educational Travel to be held in Atlantic City, N. J., February 24-26, under the direction of the NEA Division of Travel Service. A three-fold purpose has been suggested for the conference by NEA Travel Director Paul H. Kinsel: (1) to provide the opportunity for those in charge of field studies and educational tours to exchange experiences and gain ideas for improving their program; (2) to provide the opportunity for college and school administrators to discuss the values of extended travel and field programs; and (3) to consider the possibilities of a continuing conference and exchange of information on educational travel.

The conference will center around eight work groups, each composed of a cross section of representatives from key organizations and institutions in many fields such as education, government, transportation, labor, religion, and international relations. There will be an opening general session with a keynote speaker to pose the major issues for consideration, eight section meetings at work groups to deal with specific problems, and a final summation session. Subjects selected for the eight group discussion include: leader qualifications, selection, training and duties; membership—screening preparation; educational content and values; evaluating individual growth as a result of field study; credit, standards in terms of hours; promoting and financing educational travel; problems; and tour organization and operational procedure. Full conference information may be obtained from the NEA Division of Travel Service, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C.

Mr. Administrator, Please!

MARSDON A. SHERMAN

IF you are the principal of a small high school, look in your mirror tomorrow morning as you begin to shave and ask this question, "Am I driving that young commerce teacher out of the teaching profession?" The answer in more cases than we would care to admit is, "Yes." As surely as you are "a foot high," she is planning to throw over teaching as a profession and seek a job in an office next year. This is a sad commentary on the attitude of administrators toward new teachers and more especially commerce teachers, because commerce teachers are not plentiful. They don't have to teach. They can always get a job in private industry, and usually for a somewhat larger pay envelope.

What do administrators do to discourage young teachers from continuing in their profession? In the first place, teachers chose their profession because they have a humanitarian ideal somewhere in their nature. They aren't teaching because they hope to get rich. They teach because it is satisfying to them to help people. When barriers are placed in their way so that they cannot carry on an effective job of teaching, the satisfaction which they sought is not forthcoming. Result: they quit teaching.

How are you going to avoid losing a good commerce teacher? The answer is simple. Give her adequate equipment and then let her teach. Simply that and nothing more. Commerce teachers are teachers just as much as the English teachers, the history teachers, and the science teachers. If you don't make a school "roustabout" out of your other teachers, then why do you make one out of your commerce teacher?

Let me give you an example of what one girl is doing in her first teaching job this year, and her plight is paralleled by no less than half the newly graduated commerce teachers.

Mr. Sherman is Head of the Department of Commerce in the Chico State College, Chico, California.

1. She has seven periods of class every day. The rest of the staff has six.
2. She puts out the school's weekly paper.
3. She is working on the school annual.
4. She is adviser of the freshman class.
5. She keeps a set of books for student body funds.
6. She does all the mimeographing and duplicating for the school, and that includes the typing of stencils and running off tests and examinations for all the other teachers. (And the other teachers are always considerate enough to come in at least fifteen minutes before they need them.)
7. Then in addition to this, her principal "feathers his nest" by bringing in form letters, programs, envelopes, etc. for the P.T.A., Red Cross, Service Clubs, Women's Clubs, Boy and Girl Scouts, and the two town churches.

"Why doesn't she let her advanced students do it?" says the principal. Well, that is a sad story, too. You see, she was given the idea during her training that "student exploitation" was poor pedagogy; but the sadder part of the story is that last year's teacher was so busy with these activities, she didn't have time to do any teaching—so the advanced students can't do it even if they wanted to.

She was a little discouraged for a while until she went to the principal and asked him if he would have the typewriters changed over to open keyboards. He said, Miss ———, you must be crazy. I never heard tell of such a thing. Go back to your room and do a good job of teaching and forget such "crackpot" ideas. Now she isn't discouraged any more. She's dreaming of the day when she can get a job, for a living wage, which will occupy her time from eight to five, and she will be treated just like all the rest of the girls on the job.

DRIVER EDUCATION

High-School Driver Education: Policies and Recommendations is the 80-page report developed by the recent driver education conference held by the National Commission on Safety Education at Jackson's Mill, West Virginia. Main sections of the report deal with the place of driver education in the high-school curriculum; instructional planning; organization and administration; teacher qualification, preparation, and certification; and evaluation and research. Copies are available from the National Education Association at 50 cents each with discounts for quantity orders.

In-Service Training of Teachers

TRAVIS STOVALL

GENERAL PHILOSOPHY

THE program of in-service training is as important to the success of a faculty and educational program as training is to a young driver in the operation of an automobile. Colleges and universities cannot give the needed touch of detailed administrative duties and policies that must be provided within the school program. Without guidance in the system, some issue or some major problem will arise during the year because proper thought and consideration was not given at the beginning of the year. True, in-service training does not come in a capsule but only by consistent procedure and patience.

One of the first phases of the program is for the secondary principal to question himself to determine if he wants in-service training and is really ready to inaugurate the program within his school. If the principal wants to dominate the program, if he wants to be the sole administrator of his program, if he desires to have a highly organized and centralized educational system, then he had better forget in-service training and not delegate authority and responsibilities to his fellow-faculty members. Time was, in the past, when the board of education assumed control of school planning to the point of planning detailed curriculum needs; but the final and glorious day of delegating responsibility to the superintendent arrived. Time was when the superintendent gave each student an excuse to leave school or told the teachers when they might leave; and then the glorious day arrived when the superintendent delegated to the principal the responsibility of his unit or system. Teachers have consistently prayed for and requested a voice in administrative planning, in determining procedure and curriculum revision, and in many other issues; but they have not been invited to participate in these programs. Many principals have found that it is much better to take the faculty along with them than it is consistently

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to carry the burden of the entire program. Let not the slogan "as the principal goes, so goes the system" be the motto of your educational system. Let us not confuse supervision with in-service training but keep the two distinct fields separated with the respective duties in each. Thus, the basic program of in-service training begins with the principal's attitude, his sincerity, his ability to command respect, his ability to generate enthusiasm within his group. True training comes from within and not from the outside.

EFFECTIVENESS OF A PLAN

How effective a plan of in-service training will be in a system will depend on how much teacher participation can be secured. Too often teachers have felt that, following the closing of the classroom door at four o'clock, their responsibility has ended and the remainder can be left to the administrative staff; and yet, when decisions are made by the principal that affect the individual classroom teacher, the clear voice of taxation without representation appears. Participation in any plan means responsibility shared and accepted generously and co-operatively. In starting a program, the initial start must be sincerity and loyalty on the part of the principal when the responsibility has been delegated.

In seeking to inaugurate an in-service training program in a faculty, a local association may be used, a classroom organization, or the building faculty may serve as the basis. The initial program may have to be purely appointive on the part of the principal in the form of committees and suggestions that will lead the group to further action. Definite but practical problems should be the beginning—problems that are related to the system and community life. Discussions or problems relating to the distant future merely give the faculty the opinion that "another education class is in session." Once a committee or research group has started on the program suggested by the principal, require reports from the chairman and sit in with the group, if invited, but do this merely as a member of the committee and not as chairman. Inspire the chairman to the point where he can see the outcome within a dream or the immediate future. Plan consistently; patiently wait for results; and follow-up with complimentary remarks to the individual or committee for the results obtained. Responsibility is always sought by worthy teachers—be generous in your commendation of worthy individuals. The worth-whileness of an in-service training program will help solve many problems; namely,

1. Provides opportunities for teachers to assume responsibilities of leadership in staff activities.

2. Provides for teacher participation in curriculum development.
3. Provides that decisions as to basic principles, objectives, scope, and organization are arrived at co-operatively.
5. Guarantees that each teacher's opinions and judgments will be honestly considered by the group.
6. Guarantees development of leadership, creates responsibility, and develops democracy.
7. Encourages administrators to think of themselves as administrators of plans of action devised by co-operative action of the staff.

The in-service program should tend to do away with old and traditional rules that have governed so long in a school system; it will encourage teachers to experiment, to foster new methods of learning, and to give more of a definite philosophy of real education to the child.

The staff meetings should not become a debating society, a place for faculty members to pick the program to pieces. They should not be dominated by individual members, but should be a co-operative study for the real purpose of assisting with school problems. In case there is criticism of current practices and the faculty is not in agreement, the administration would do well to see that the faculty group is consulted to establish a new policy or to adjust the present policy. The in-service training program should continue through the principal to the superintendent, and even to the board of education. Today's in-service training program has developed in many schools to the point where the board of education and the faculty group have met co-operatively to study curriculum, building needs, salary schedules, and many other educational needs.

RESULTS OF THE PROGRAM

Once a faculty has seen the value of an in-service training program, many important values will be derived. Individual teacher initiative will become stronger to the point that the child will be the beneficiary of a greater store of knowledge. A happy and contented faculty member will give more time and energy to the school program in the same way that an automobile will give more service if properly serviced. The teachers will (1) visit with parents about the students they teach and (2) seek public opinion in regards to community surveys, parents' nights, guidance, and other major community-school projects.

The final achievement for the principal will be the fact that he has a faculty trained for democracy, for individual freedom, and for every problem that might arise. Closer harmony of a more loyal group will support the

program of the administration. The age-old theory of teacher insecurity will tend to disappear; the timidity of the classroom will go into the background with a smiling and happy classroom teacher coming to the front and standing on her soapbox screaming to the world that she has a definite interest in the future of each and every child.

In-service training will benefit the superintendent in that when a program is presented to the group, each member will feel free to participate and to develop the program that has been presented. Fewer personal conferences between the principal and superintendent in regard to individual faculty members will have to be held because of the initiative of the faculty in the execution of school participation.

The board of education has fewer worries in that it has a more stable group to carry on the modern design of education. The teachers have a sense of security, participate in within-the-community activities, and feel they are on an equal with the board of education members in that they have been given an opportunity for participation.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

1. As a principal, do not inaugurate an in-service training program if your attitude is that of desiring to be the determining factor in your school and of not being willing to delegate authority. Be true to yourself and answer the question before you try to sell the idea to your family.
2. In selling in-service training to your faculty, be truly sincere and willing to co-operate with the faculty.
3. Rely upon the judgment of the committee or the faculty, and continue to inspire the best that is within your faculty.

Again, in-service training is the vital link of developing the group as you want the group to be; it gives the very life blood to an organization and is essential for the greatness of an educational system. Your faculty will go with you if you work with them.

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An Evaluative Criteria For the Core Program in Grade Seven

FRANK H. LEWIS

CRITERION ONE

The core program in grade seven should be consistent with the purposes of education in our American society.

SPECIFICATION ONE—The philosophy around which the core program is centered should recognize that all youth must be served.

The school should have among its objectives the development of a program that will, in grade seven, advance the individual in his school life farther on the road to making him personally competent and socially responsible for participation in our American democracy.

SPECIFICATION TWO—The philosophy of an individual school should take its orientation from the imperative needs of all the youth in that school, particularly the seventh-grade adolescents.

There are many statements to be found in current literature that will influence any school in formulating its philosophy. The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, Caswell and Campbell, Alberty, Douglas, Stratemeyer, Leonard, and others stress a set of common experiences to be met by all youth in addition to experiences in their special interest fields. The ten "Imperative Needs of Youth" as stated by the Educational Policies Commission, and as further developed by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the list of the twelve needs of adolescents, and the fifteen "imperative needs" as listed by the State Department of Education of Maryland, June 1947, should serve as a nucleus on which to build a program of common learnings for grade seven.

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SPECIFICATION THREE—*The philosophy of the individual school depends upon the strength of the staff in carrying on the implications of the philosophy into intelligent practice.*

The internal structure of the school, composed of an earnest and sincere staff readily co-operating under forward-looking leadership, should make the philosophy a living truth. Purposeful study and creative efforts by intelligent and willing teachers will make the core program very effective in the philosophy of the school. Ignorance and indifference of teachers concerning the value of the program can invalidate the school's philosophy. The philosophy of the school is only as good as its teachers and principals interpret it wisely.

CRITERION TWO

The core program in grade seven should be democratically administered to insure the meeting of all the needs of the students in that grade so that the basic philosophy of the school will become an actuality.

In a democratic society, the school should be a democratic unity demonstrating by its organization and administration the best practices of living in our American civilization. The practices of the school, in implementing the core program, should be visible evidences of the philosophy of school action.

SPECIFICATION ONE—*The schedule must be arranged to provide opportunities for meeting the needs of seventh-grade pupils.*

The schedule should make provision to have the pupils spend one half of each day in pursuit of common learnings under the leadership and guidance of one teacher. It should make provision that the remainder of the day be devoted to special areas including the fine arts, physical education and health, and arts and crafts.

SPECIFICATION TWO—*Classes or sections should be heterogeneous in composition.*

Heterogeneity permits social fraternization so essential to the preservation of our democratic society. The varying differences in pupils in the same class permit this to be helpful for them to acquire much from each other. In a heterogeneous group, the accelerated pupils can stimulate, guide, and show respect for the practical contributions of, and be tolerant with slow learners. The slow learners can find satisfying rewards for their contributions to group and individual projects and be appreciative of the assistance rendered them by accelerated students. All pupils should be encouraged to draw upon their own background of experiences and broaden them in a hetero-

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gencous grouping. Within such a class composition, there will be opportunities for ability grouping for purposes of instruction in the essential skills.

SPECIFICATION THREE—*The number of pupils per section should permit maximum efficiency in pupil-teacher relationships and in learning opportunities.*

The teaching loads should not be too large as to prohibit the intimate relationship necessary in meeting the common needs of the adolescents. The loads should not be too small as to be economically unsound and lose the helpfulness and stimulation that comes with the impetus given by numbers of students.

SPECIFICATION FOUR—*Pupils need to draw from many sources the information they should have in order to solve the problems met in core courses.*

In a desirable seventh-grade core program, these things are in evidence:

1. Textbooks, pictures, models, films, filmstrips, phonograph records, transcriptions, bulletin boards, notebooks, scrapbooks, maps, and others.
2. Textbooks are valuable as a base for finding material. They should be sufficiently recent in publication to assure that their content is up to date; should contain adequate study guides; should include leads to further study; should have extensive and well-selected references for supplementary study; and should be well organized and adaptable to the needs and abilities of the various pupils. Textbooks constitute only a part of the material to be studied in any core unit of work.
3. Pictures, models, objects, and specimens enrich and vivify the learning experiences.
4. Films are used as an additional source of background information.
5. Auditory devices, such as phonograph records, radio programs, wire recordings, and transcriptions, are in use to implement the plans and purposes of the core areas.
6. Bulletin boards are effectively used as aids to learning with pupils assisting in the management, selection, and arrangement of materials.
7. Notebooks and scrapbooks show worth-while means of organizing material, of assembling unusual data, and of demonstrating creative effort.
8. Maps are used to aid instruction by visualizing the function that space plays in human relationships.

SPECIFICATION FIVE—*The system should provide classroom facilities that reflect the sequential development and the unity of the educative experiences of the core program.*

These evidences are to be found in a junior high school. The physical facilities afforded should include a classroom with adequate floor and window area. Movable desks, tables and chairs—adjustable to individual students' sizes—and adaptable chart racks are essential for visual teaching and as instruments for developing and executing group plans. Maps and globes make real the understandings of past, current, and future events. Electrical outlets permit the use of the school's filmstrip, opaque, and sound film projectors. Shelving and display cases afford space for books and exhibits of *realia*. The facilities satisfy the evolving biological, emotional, and social needs of adolescents. The classroom, with its interest and activity corners for social studies and its science equipment and English expression provisions, becomes a nuclear center. Around this room should be grouped the visual aids, the supply room, the music room, the arts and crafts room, and a strategically located library. This evidence of unity in the program provides a place to attack personal-social problems and is indicative of a functional educational core program.

SPECIFICATION SIX—*Library facilities, to be used extensively by core classes as an integral part of all core activities, need to be provided.*

The schedule should permit the core teacher and her group to spend at least one period per week working in the library. The library's supply of reference materials, picture and clipping collection, and visual materials should be available to any group upon sufficient notice. The core teacher and the librarian plan together the use of reference materials, articles from periodicals, pertinent collections from the files of clippings, circulars, slides, filmstrips, and films that are available for any project in which the class or groups are engaged. The use of recreational reading ought to be encouraged and core classes should develop interesting means of interpreting and reproducing the books read. Loans of library materials to core classrooms should be provided.

SPECIFICATION SEVEN—*There should be a wide variety of classroom procedures and techniques utilized in the planning and executing of a piece of work in the common learnings program.*

The principles of group dynamics should be in evidence in every classroom procedure. Wherever group processes are working best, learning is proceeding at a high degree. A continual flow of ideas for improving the

quality of contributions from group planning should be noticeable in all teacher-pupil planning of class experiences. Graphic means of presenting the co-operative plans of teachers and pupils should be apparent and should include the preparation of charts, graphs, posters, and bulletin board displays. There should be written and oral expression involving creative writing, newspaper releases and articles, forum discussions, dramatizations, interviews, participation in panel reports of group work, broadcasts for school public address systems and radio stations, informal pupil-teacher discussions, and oral and written reports. Further procedures should embrace the study of community agencies, field trips, the collection of local products and other *realia*, radio and transcription listening, the use of visual and auditory aids, the continuous evaluation of individual and group work surveys, and exhibits.

SPECIFICATION EIGHT—*Core teachers should regularly confer with the special teachers who instruct their sections.*

It is essential that the core teachers get as complete a picture as possible of every student in their section by conferences with the special teachers and by visitation to the special teachers' classrooms. The core teachers should visit their section's classrooms—music, fine arts, mathematics, home arts, crafts, and physical education. They should use some of their unassigned periods to observe their students in these situations. They should confer with these special teachers. They will be enabled to cement the unity that must exist between the core subjects and the related subjects.

SPECIFICATION NINE—*Frequent staff meetings, as often as once a week, should be planned for and held during school time and after school hours.*

These meetings offer opportunity to exchange ideas for enriching and enlarging the scope of the units being taught, to re-examine the curriculum in terms of the needs of the students, to make plans for broadening the curriculum, to discuss and devise evaluative techniques, and to demonstrate successful practices.

CRITERION THREE

The core curriculum in grade seven should be so constructed as to provide for all the needs of all the adolescents of that grade level.

The core program gives superior opportunities for developing understandings and attitudes for wise participation in problems of everyday living. Continued exploration of all the possibilities for effective democratic views, understandings, and practices can be brought to the forefront in the unfolding of each core unit.

SPECIFICATION ONE—*The common learnings, the basis for the curriculum for grade seven, should be developed from various sources.*

Numerous studies should be made in order to build the curriculum—a study of the social and economic characteristics of the local community; a study of the social and economic changes in the local society and life in general with the relation of those changes to educational thinking; a study of the interests, hopes, and aspirations of pupils within the school; a study of curriculum development as indicated in educational literature. Recommendations of boards and staff members should also be observed.

SPECIFICATION TWO—*There should be evidence that the study of the growth of early adolescents and their characteristics has influenced the area of interests covered in the core program for grade seven.*

Basic personal-social relationships of adolescents; the maturity level of adolescents conditioned by their growth mentally, physically, emotionally, and socially; and the interaction of youth with their environment are the determinants for the organization of the areas of the curriculum. Specifically, the curriculum will have to solve: problems of personal health and self assurance; a gratification and workable philosophy of life; the satisfaction of personal interests and aesthetic impulses; adjustments with peer group cultures; participation in socially significant activities; the giving of assistance in attaining social recognition; the consideration and preparation for a vocation.

SPECIFICATION THREE—*The framework of the core curriculum for grade seven should reflect several definite areas and have sufficient breadth to encourage enrichment and initiative.*

There should be evidence that the curriculum is both affected by the school experiences of students prior to grade seven, their stage of growth and development when entering grade seven, and their common needs as they are magnified when they emerge into early adolescent life. The scope of the curriculum should be sufficiently broad to permit individual contributions by teachers and pupils according to their special attributes and abilities. It should be broad to encourage experimentation by the teachers and permit the inclusion of new experiences for the students.

SPECIFICATION FOUR—*A continuing sequence of units of experience should be followed throughout grade seven.*

This series of units should be part of a comprehensive sequence of units or areas covered from the first grade through the twelfth grade. These

needs that adolescents have and must be dealt with in grade seven are the same with which youth are confronted in earliest infancy and continue through life. They change their form and expression as the students mature.

SPECIFICATION FIVE—The development of the curriculum should be a co-operative enterprise.

Several factors should be a part of any co-operative endeavor in curriculum development. The principal, or some other qualified official, should supervise the school's development and adaptation of the curriculum. Committees of teachers actively interested in carrying on the program of common learnings should meet and consult on possible changes in the curriculum. They should use group processes in solving their curriculum construction problems. Qualified laymen and parents ought to be consulted regarding the areas of the curriculum. Professional consultant service should be secured whenever possible and helpful. All available library, museum, laboratory, and field materials should be utilized by the curriculum planners. Use of source and resource units prepared by state and national groups indicates the trend and extent of the curriculum. Broad, comprehensive resource units prepared by teachers would enable them to have assistance in planning learning activities.

SPECIFICATION SIX—The curriculum should seek to establish relationships between various areas of subject matter as are brought to bear in the solution of vital problems of living.

The units and areas set up for study should challenge the students to explore and to utilize the knowledge and skills of more than one subject. The learning activities should cut across subject-matter boundaries and deal with problems without regard to those subject-matter lines.

SPECIFICATION SEVEN—Saleable skills are an essential part of any curriculum.

Provision should be made in the curriculum for the development of useful and saleable skills. There should be many opportunities for the learning of usable facts and skills in an effective, economical, and significant manner. The teaching of skills in isolation from meaningful situations should be avoided. There should be assurance that each pupil has a command of the common skills of communication and computation which are commensurate with his ability and of general significance in modern living.

SPECIFICATION EIGHT—The curriculum should provide for an evaluation and study of all pupils in the grade to determine means of developing their potentialities.

The potentialities of all pupils, whether accelerated, average, or slow learners, must be determined, and steps should be taken in the interpretation of the curriculum to provide for their needs. A special study of the pupils will enable the teachers to teach these pupils better. The needs of these pupils vary. The study of their growth and development will indicate that at each maturation level they come a little nearer the limit of their potentialities. For some seventh-grade pupils, the readiness for reading and computing is becoming apparent for the first time. Other pupils have met their highest level of achievement, while still others have seemingly unlimited potentialities. The curriculum, as constructed, should provide ample situations to satisfy the needs of all these types of pupils.

CRITERION FOUR

The core program should provide ample opportunities for the evaluation of the progress of seventh-grade students toward the goals for which they and their teachers are working.

Three standards should be used as measuring devices for teachers and pupils in their co-operative enterprises: the goals are possible of achievement; the goals cause some effort in achieving them; the goals are worth while after having been attained. Evaluation must be a co-operative undertaking, be continuous, and the technique must evolve as the program develops.

SPECIFICATION ONE—A wide range of evaluative techniques should be used in collecting and discovering evidence of student growth.

A complete program of evaluation involves group-appraisal and self-appraisal. Evaluation should be made of all phases of pupil growth: namely, intellectual, physical, emotional, social, and economic. The evaluation must be in terms of goals compatible with child growth and development and with social expectancies of youth. The evaluative techniques fall into two categories. The first, known as the informal means of appraisal, is indicated by the statements made by the students, the questions raised by students, the quality and quantity of the material students read and report, the projects they volunteer to undertake illustrative of their fields of interest, the spirit of co-operation evinced in committee work and in group participation, the attitude toward other members of the class, the anecdotal records of observed pupil behavior, and an analysis of all written work done by pupils. The second group, or formal means of evaluation, is indicated by standardized tests that gather evidence on growth and improvement of attitudes, beliefs, and interests (includes scale of beliefs, nature of proof test, interpretation of data tests, culture conflict index and racial attitude test); standard-

ized tests for getting evidence of scholastic achievement; and aptitude tests. The achievement tests prove to be a guide in the selection of skills to be taught, indicate the amount of emphasis on the skills program, reveal whether the scope of the unit is desirable, and show the effectiveness of the core program.

SPECIFICATION TWO—*There should be co-operative and continuous evaluation in every core unit in grade seven.*

An appraisal should be made by teachers and pupils at the initiatory stage of each unit and as they progress to the culmination of the desired goals. Progress and growth charts developed by the students are one form of evaluation to measure progress. A checklist or set of criteria is another form of progressive evaluation by pupils. As each unit unfolds, the teachers should make systematic and discerning observation of the pupils in many situations involved in developing desirable personalities.

SPECIFICATION THREE—*Frequent samplings of the acquisition of factual knowledge and saleable skills should be made.*

Subject-matter tests are necessary to determine whether the pupils have a sufficient, usable body of knowledge from which to make concepts. Such tests are necessary to isolate individual needs and prepare materials for meeting these needs. These standardized tests denote the ability to master and comprehend the reading of the printed word, to master communication and computation skills, and to master study skills.

CRITERION FIVE

The core program in grade seven should show close relationship with the guidance program.

SPECIFICATION ONE—*The core teacher should assume the function of a guidance counselor.*

All of the guidance in grade seven is largely general in nature since so many of the needs of adolescents are common to all. The guidance can be provided in core classroom situations as definite areas of the units are studied. Special cases, as the physically handicapped child, the emotionally upset pupil, the maladjusted child, the one who is the center of attention, and the attendance problem, are exceptions and should be referred to a special guidance counselor or personnel worker.

SPECIFICATION TWO—*Traditional home-room guidance programs in departmentalized organizations should be supplanted by the core teacher directing many of the pupils' experiences.*

Artificial guidance themes in the formal system are eliminated and the experiences and needs growing out of the common-learnings units furnish many opportunities for class guidance. These include: conducting class business; planning social affairs; keeping records; learning desirable study skills; understanding the rules, regulations, traditions, and facilities of the school situation new to the pupil; learning the fundamental rules of health and the relationship of good health to successful achievement in school life; gaining a concept of the duties of citizenship; understanding desirable standards and manners in social situations; developing desirable character traits aimed at self-improvement, adjusting subject matter to the individual differences and potentialities in the class; adjusting the school day to the physical limitations of the students; and making individual inventories and appraisals of individual progress in group living.

SPECIFICATION THREE—*The fundamentals of group living and surveys of community resources should be the basis of general guidance in grade seven.*

A knowledge of life in the local community gives an insight into the type of living the students will have when they complete their education and cites the common needs of youth in that locality. Vocational exploratory courses in guidance are deferred until the senior high school.

SPECIFICATION FOUR—*The school's socializing activity program should furnish another guidance opportunity for core teachers.*

Teachers should recognize the activity program as being complementary to and integrated with common learnings activities rather than as separate parts of school life. With membership in various activity groups being on a democratic basis, the core teachers need to steer pupils in the selection of activities that will further their interests and capabilities. They should advise pupils to refrain from overloading themselves with too many activities to the detriment of greater values obtained by participating in a few. The teachers and pupils should evaluate the merits of each activity and its probable outcomes.

SPECIFICATION FIVE—*Permanent record cards should afford valuable statistical data for core teachers in fitting the work to the needs of the pupils.*

The cumulative record cards give the core teacher data to help her understand the individuals in her class by mentioning the home and family background of each pupil, his physical and medical status, his personal and social development, his scholastic progress, and a record of evaluations made of him at various stages in his school life.

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CRITERION SIX

The school and community should work together inevitably and naturally in effecting, promoting, and interpreting the core program in grade seven.

"The school cannot work successfully alone. Parents, other members of the community, and the community as a whole contribute to the education which goes on in the school."¹

SPECIFICATION ONE—The underlying philosophy for the common learnings curriculum should be revised continuously.

Constant awareness of changes in the community's social and economic processes is essential to keep the curriculum abreast of the changing needs of youth. Constant examination of the curriculum is needed to evaluate its effectiveness in satisfying community trends and the resulting impact on the pupil population.

SPECIFICATION TWO—The core program for grade seven is developed as a joint enterprise in which the school, home, and community participate.

Only through co-operative efforts can the curriculum be revised to fit the changing needs of youth in a changing society. The vitally important matters that constitute the core curriculum are just as vital to the lives of the pupils' parents and others in the community. As the curriculum operates to help the pupils, it also helps to change the habits of the adults, and all phases of education are integral parts of the same educational program.

SPECIFICATION THREE—Teachers, pupils, parents, and laymen should explore the educational resources in the community.

A good curriculum always stems from the outside. A knowledge of community facilities and agencies that provide pupils with out-of-school activities and aids is an inseparable part of understanding in developing the the common learnings in the school.

SPECIFICATION FOUR—Many opportunities should be utilized to demonstrate effectively the work of the school.

Any means of demonstrating the curriculum will evaluate the school program to the public and gain acceptance for it. Some ways to enlighten the public and parents especially are: reports and letters to parents, telephone and personal conferences with parents, home visitations, newspaper articles, evening performances and demonstrations, assemblies for parents, and parent-teacher-pupil councils.

¹ Stratemeyer, Florence B., and others. *Developing A Curriculum for Modern Living*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College. Columbia University. 1947. 558 pp.

America's New Four Hundred

JAIRUS J. DEISENROTH

ONE of the encouraging developments in the current and sentimental interest in "democracy" is the rather startling fact that here and there in these United States life is actually drawing closer to real democratic living. This idealistic condition of living has been the objective of many organizations in the past and of some of today's groups; but all too often have these degenerated into badge wearing and the distribution of offices and titles. Not until one great national organization of young people came along with a program of training for citizenship has there been anything of importance to write home about. But it has come into prominence; there is now certainty of sure encouragement for those who are hoping that through one agency or another the ideals of our democracy will become part of the living and thinking of a generation.

This movement is called, most frequently, the Student Council, although it goes by other names as well: School Senate, High-School Congress, General Organization, Representative Assembly, and so on. Regardless of its name, where it is sponsored by school and community leaders for its real value in training young people in the ways of democratic living, it has become the "nail in a sure place," the priceless ingredient in the formula which we call American education.

This writer is content to let the National Association of Secondary-School Principals do the day-by-day plugging for its baby, the National Association of Student Councils. Our readers are well acquainted with the literature and possibly the successes attending these efforts of the principals' group. But it is more than likely that not many of the men and women who read these materials have had the mountain-top experience of attending and participating

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in two National Conferences of this Association of Student Councils. From these two meetings, one in Washington and one in Cincinnati, the writer has become convinced that he has come upon a "New Four Hundred," the boys and girls whose state and regional associations have sent them to these meetings.

Actually, the number of delegates to these meetings is closer to 350 than to 400, although by counting the local youth who attend by virtue of their working on planning committees, it is likely that 400 could well be the number. But no manipulation of figures could be an excuse for designating this national meeting as one of the New Four Hundred. No, this phrase popped into the writer's thinking as he sat in the auditorium of Coolidge High School, Washington, D. C., observing the conduct and sensing the spirit of the meeting of these youngsters. He felt that there was an aura over the conference that bade well for the future of the country. He realized that in spite of what pessimists have to say darkly, or what Communists may be attempting, the presence of four hundred clean, fine, honest, bright boys and girls in such a meeting was a good sign for our nation which long has needed a solvent substitute for that worn-out phrase and its adherents, the Four Hundred of social importance.

While it is stimulating to refer to these young people as the New Four Hundred, implying, as intended, that they are the cream of the country, we hasten to reassure those who have been working through the years with other youth groups, *e.g.* the venerable Christian Endeavor, the Y groups, the 4-H organization, and the like, that in many ways this Student Council Conference was also a bringing together of the best of their leadership, because many of these boys and girls were not only Student Council leaders, but were, by their natures, also leaders in Camp Fire, Scouts, DeMolay, Rainbow Girls, and in the many other fine groups dealing with young people.

What reasons can be advanced to justify calling this group of boys and girls the New Four Hundred? Well, first of all, they were selected or elected representatives of Student Councils from forty or more states and possessions. They were not picked for their looks, although one would be forced to admit that they stand high on a pin-up basis. They were, presumably, the best that the states and regions had to offer. You would have agreed that the sending organizations did well, had you heard them discuss their problems, learned of their devotion to the democratic ideal and of their great interest in making American education really productive of good citizenship. These youngsters were not successes from the past year, but were those who were to be the actual or nominal leaders of the schools the following year. Hence the observer knew that an indelible impression was being made, an impression that would

be utilized in schools all over the land by the time the first month of the new school year had been completed.

We like to remember the two incidents which proved the sincerity of the boys and girls who attended these meetings. They knew why they were at the Conference; it was obvious or these incidents could not have happened. At the opening of one of the Conferences, the young man who presided explained to the delegates that there was a school and city ruling which prohibited the use of tobacco either on the school ground or in the building. We have seen rules of this nature flaunted and violated wherever we have gone. But not at these Conferences. Only one violation was seen by this observer, this by a faculty representative who absentmindedly lighted a pipe after a meeting and while on the grounds! The youngsters, so far as could be observed, obeyed the rule.

The second incident was that of the annual banquet, which was to have been followed by a semi-formal dance. The program called for the dinner, a round of speeches, and then the dance. The "kids" were really fixed up for the affair. The girls in their formals, the boys in their Sunday best, were all set for the closing night's events. Down the hall from the dining-room was the beautifully decorated gym, in which the snappy dance band was already playing tentatively, awaiting the arrival of the dancers. But in the dining room the main speaker, who was regaling the boys and girls with tales that had them alternately in stitches or sober as judges, was talking far beyond the time allotted to him. However, it seemed that only the oldsters were concerned about this, for not a boy or girl made one move to attend the dance. And this observer made it a point to speak to numerous of these young people at the dance, learning that in almost every case they stated a preference for the speaking over the dancing, "at least at this Conference," as they put it.

What else do they do at a Student Council Conference? Too many states and regions have local conferences to require that this paper answer the question in detail. These conferences all over the country hold generally to the accepted form of such meetings—with talks, discussions, forums, round-tables, and the like; all part and parcel of the way Americans like to meet and to promote. For those who believe that the value is not worth the cost, it must be recalled that these young people are at the age when they are most easily impressed. One needs only to recall his own experiences at church conferences to remember the vows made, the ambitions stirred, the new threads woven into life patterns that come with such meetings. The Student Council Conference is no exception.

But there are brown spots on the lovely picture. The very fact that we express the hope that every high school in the land should soon experience the

blessings of student participation in school management means that far too many schools have not even tried the plan. Too many of the readers of this article are saying that they can run a school without having the "kids" interfere. And far worse for the movement itself is the school that makes a mockery of student participation by setting up dummy organizations devoted to sponsoring dances, patrolling halls, or wearing arm-bands at PTA meetings! Sadly did this writer listen to an enthusiastic girl tell of her school's Student Council, which sponsored a weekly "Citizenship Day," a day in which every pupil who had not received conduct demerits was given early dismissal of one hour! And, to go from the ridiculous to the super-ridiculous, one needs only to mention the high school which held its Student Council meetings during the period of the largest study hall of the day, because only members of study halls were permitted to be Student Council members in that school. One is tempted to cry "Shame! Shame!" at the very mention of the word participation in these connections.

There are real reasons for our wanting the student participation movement to succeed, fairly and honestly. Education is not so well set in American life that we can afford to lie back and wait for someone to pat us on the shoulder and say the "well done." All schools, public or private, having put their hands to the plow, having been set aside to take over the training of boys and girls in their charge, must accept responsibility for training these youngsters for fruitful and active citizenship. Public high schools are bound to do this if for no other reason than that the schools of a democracy are committed to this task. And private and church-related schools have no less a responsibility. This writer believes that the training for democratic living, so well exemplified by the Student Council, is a must for public schools and a challenge for all other schools. There is a supreme call to all educators that can be met, at least in part, by this movement of which we write.

It is important, then, that we recognize this National Conference for what it is—the finest flowering of the most significant single activity that any school can sponsor, nothing less than student participation in democratic fashion in school and community matters which vitally affect them and which their age and training make them ready to discuss. When school leaders come to see the importance of this program, they will then have realized that life is really earnest and that it cannot long be sustained on such activities, youthful or adult, as bridge, bingo, or binges!

One highly placed schoolman stated recently that "if we can keep open the channels of education and information for fifty years more, there will be

(Continued on p. 218)

Participation: Key to Education for Effective Living

GRANT RAHN

TO the principal or teacher who has a deep confidence in youth, a key to education for more effective living is—student participation. This phrase has such potentiality; for it implies working with youth on problems that matter to them. It involves emphasis on learning through use rather than academically for some possible distant use. For future as well as current living, student participation in the here and now is richly developmental; for in a democracy the goals of education are:

1. Competent self-direction with social responsibility
2. Active participation in the concern of the individual's expanding community

The concept has in it the power of self-propulsion; because "we learn what we live to the extent that we live"

THE USUAL BEGINNING: EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The truth of these statements, most schools have experienced in the so-called extracurricular activities. This is particularly true in those schools where youth have had a large part in deciding what to do and how to do it, whether the activity be student government, the school paper, the annual, or club work. Great student concern and effort in these activities is less likely where sponsor or principal manipulates students to do what he wants them to do.

Driving concern for the success of "our paper" or pride in "our student council" follows gradual extension of responsibility as students show themselves willing and ready to carry it. Having delegated a responsibility, the teacher then stands by, not to tell what to do or how, but to analyze with students the situation as difficulties arise, to stimulate them to propose and

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evaluate promising solutions for the purpose of deciding jointly what should be done and why.

If, instead of pointing out defects and supplying the correct answer, the sponsor raises questions concerning an inadvisable step, more growth results. The function of the teacher is to see that youth acquaint themselves with all the factors that bear upon the problem. Studying the relationship of these factors, youth usually make pretty sound action-judgments.

If they make an occasional mistake, what of it? They learn from mistakes as readily as adults who make plenty. In the face of student errors in judgment, the teacher concerned with growth in responsible self-direction does not condemn, but with confidence in intent again helps discover why. Through emphasis on evaluation and re-evaluation, he aids them to grow in circumspect self-criticism. Such procedures in sharing responsibility characterize the life of the school which really believes that greater growth for the democratic life comes from mutually solving the problems of living and working together than from working under rules, requirements, and standards imposed by authority.

THE NEXT STEP: INTO THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES

A Natural Transition

In schools which have had success with these practices, two developments usually occur:

1. They tend to incorporate activities into the school program with curricular status. For example, a class of thirty seniors whose English work as juniors included newswriting carries the responsibility of the school paper with distinction. Members of the student council receive curricular credit for social problems. To increase the body of percepts, the science class carries on environment-centered activities formerly confined to the science club.
2. They extend into other classes the techniques of participation which made the extracurricular program vital.

Facilitating the Transition

For progress in these developments, any school concerned with education for improved behavior can increase its effectiveness by undertaking three projects designed to promote student participation:

1. After familiarizing themselves through faculty meetings with the techniques of co-operative thinking¹ or group dynamics, a staff may profitably introduce group processes in all classes involving discussion problems.

¹ Convinced that pressure tactics produce neither sound nor enduring solutions to problems, Dr. S. A. Courtis in the mid-thirties insisted that the future of democracy in our country required further evolution of the techniques of co-operative thinking and action. His formulation of those processes still endures as a classic statement. See: Courtis, S. A., *Teachers and Co-operation*. Washington, 6, D. C.: Bulletin of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, NEA, 1937. 79 pp. (Out of print; available at libraries). Subsequently through courses at various universities, he influenced a number of schools to undertake practice of these techniques; but the time was not ripe for general acceptance. However, as a result

2. The teacher will have the class use the group process to define each problem, to analyze it, to select and study subject matter pertinent to the problem, to ascertain and resolve issues, to propose solutions involving the most significant values, and to devise and test the most promising emergent solution before adoption.
3. With confidence that dividends will multiply, every staff may well strive continuously to base class problems on the concerns² and needs³ of youth.

The Power of a Few

Even though it may be difficult to interest an entire staff in these three projects, the few who do see the possibilities can initiate participation. A staff united can, it is true, insure greatest student growth; but any part of the staff, even one teacher, can give significant help to youth in better equipping themselves for the needs of our time.

To illustrate, partisans on an issue in one English class had "run all around Robin Hood's barn" in quest of arguments to support their respective positions. Trained in the processes of co-operative thinking, the teacher⁴ permitted the situation to degenerate into a "Tis-Taint" state. She then raised with them the question as to whether they would like to learn to carry on a discussion with such regard for one another's viewpoints as to culminate in a commonly approved solution. With their interest aroused, she introduced them to the principles of the co-operative process. Through having them use these principles on a problem of common concern. She helped them to experience how, from the contributions of every class member, many factors so come into the open as to culminate in a more comprehensive solution. She then proposed that each student formulate five problems for discussion and that a committee tabulate the results. From this process, more than fifty problems emerged. All had significance to the group. Among them were such as these: Race Prejudice, Teen-Agers and Their Parents, Petting, Teen-Age Recreation, Behavior on a Date, Interesting Summer Jobs, Housing, Marriage and Divorce, Supersonic Flight, United Nations, Movies, Sportsmanship in Our School, Compulsory Arithmetic in High School, Democracy in the School. On the basis of their respective interests, pupils

of the conflicts growing out of reconversion and the international situation, both education and industry have become greatly concerned over the co-operative resolution of issues. Much impetus has resulted to what is now called Group Dynamics. Because of widely recognized social need, the processes, being continuously refined, give promise of markedly improving human relations. A very good reference is: Parker, J. Cecil, "Democratic Group Processes;" *Group Processes in Supervision*. Washington 6, D. C.: Bulletin of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1948. Chapter II, pp. 20-63.

² Corey, Stephen M. "The Developmental Tasks of Youth." *The American High School*. Eighth Yearbook, John Dewey Society. New York: Harper Brothers, 1946. Chapter V, pp. 70-99.

³ Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development. *The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary-School Age*. Washington 6, D. C.: Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; Vol. 31, No. 145. March, 1947. 144 pp. (Out of print.)

⁴ Miss Madge McRae, Grossmont Union High School, Grossmont, California.

formed themselves into panels of three or five. In preparation for class discussion, each group used the library, the interview, the survey, or other resources to a degree which reflected the proven truth the people work hard on what concerns them. In the respective discussions that followed, almost all panel members became articulate to an extent that encouraged the teacher and gave confidence to the pupils.

Process Extension

If once a teacher has seriously endeavored to enlist the participation of students in "thinking, discussing, planning, deciding, acting, and evaluating together" for the solution of a problem that concerns them, he will continue the group process on other problems. Any teacher, who, without experience in the process sees its possibilities, can make a beginning. He can increase his insight by familiarizing himself with such literature as that to which this article makes reference. Since seeing gives reality to concepts, he will find such films as *Broader Concepts of Method*⁵ helpful in planning his procedures.

Action Problems Fruitful

Pupil-teacher planning on almost any problem of concern usually yields greater dividends in behavior changes than teacher-prescribed work; but student participation in solving problems that culminate in action decided upon by the group tend to be most potent in effecting changed behavior. "Social practices that should prevail in our school"⁶ and "the handling by students of an incident involving poor sportsmanship"⁷ are illustrative. The reasons for the potency of group decision in effecting behavior change in each member inhere in such principles as these: being personally involved in making a decision tends to insure acceptance; personal commitment to a group reinforces one's sense of obligation to abide by the decision; the values esteemed by the group in a decision tend to become more strongly entrenched in one's own value system. Because of the power of group decision to work behavior changes, the group life at school provides a vast reservoir of problems for solution at progressively higher levels. It is well that students learn to solve the problems of living and working together in school; for this environment they can, with faculty support, control to a large extent. Under this condition, youth can grow without undue frustration in

⁵ "Broader Concept of Method," *Teacher Education Series, Part I*—"Developing Pupil Interest;" Part II—"Teacher and Pupils Planning and Working Together." 20 minutes each. Black and white, sound films. Also filmstrips focused on each to promote discussion. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

⁶ Rahn, Grant. "Principles of Social Organization and Action." *Schools for a New World*. Twentieth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 1947.

⁷ *Op. cit.*, p. 165.

self-direction with social responsibility and in the techniques of participation.

THE CULMINATION: MOVING INTO COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

Induction into Adult Community

Through working on problems of school life, students build into themselves the attitudes and skills of co-operative thinking and action. But this is not enough to insure their later participation in solving community problems. If we want from them later wide-spread participation at that level, we must make provision for current exercise of those attitudes and skills on community problems. To share in the problems of everyday living while still in school actually inducts into community life. Such participation so awakens concern for the common good as to make more likely continued participation after school days are past.

This implies identification of the school with the constructive forces in the community. It implies bringing the community into the school and the school into the community for consideration of all aspects of such problems as: rural electrification, the wiser use of natural resources in the locality, improvement of health services and environment, increased provision for recreational facilities, and development of work-experience programs for students.

Guarding Against Dangers

There are dangers^a in a program designed to induct youth into community participation; but there are dangers in every departure from the traditional which no longer adequately meets the demands of our times. On the other hand, the demands of our time make the dangers of nondeparture from the traditional even greater. As a consequence, the responsible educator who recognizes the worth of participation for the common good will overcome^b the dangers through forthright interaction with students, parents, and civic leaders.

Community Interaction Illustrated

Perhaps several illustrations as to procedure may stimulate some to such further study of local opportunities as will lead to increased school participation on community problems. Last spring through the co-operation of principals and the Office of the Superintendent of Schools of San Diego County, ten high schools sent student representatives to the Pacific Regional Conference on UNESCO at San Francisco. The purpose of the Conference was to develop in each participant a sense of responsibility for going back

^a Storen, Helen F. *Laymen Help Plan the Curriculum*. Chapter 3, "Participation Brings Problems." pp. 48-61. Washington, 6, D. C. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1946.

^b *Ibid.* Chapter 4, "Problems Have Their Solutions," pp. 62-75. Olsen, Edward G., and others. *School and Community*. Chapter XII, pp. 248-270. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc. 1945.

into his community to stimulate discussion of UNESCO. The avowed intention of such projected discussion was to promote greater understanding of peoples differing from us at home and abroad. It was recognized that only through promoting such insight can our evolving foreign policy achieve that broad base of discriminating support essential in a democracy. The Conference, sponsored by the U. S. Department of State, had an attendance of 4,000 delegates. Of this number, high-school and college students were decidedly in the majority. Yet in the many small discussion groups into which the Conference was organized, students so contributed as to win the acclaim of adults. Needless to say, youth, as a result of the opportunity and recognition, achieved for themselves an increased sense of dignity and self-respect.

As one local outcome, four students prepared a panel discussion for presentation to the San Diego Chapter of United Nations. In commenting on this report by youth, the group president wrote, "I wish to keep contact with the students who were delegates since I believe that their presence alone will have the effect of causing the older members to work more zealously for our objectives."

The teaching-learning unit *Operation Atomic Vision*¹⁰ presents a number of procedures for interaction of the school with the community. In initiating this unit, the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals had as its prime purpose the stimulation of high schools "to increase the public understanding of atomic energy for peacetime living." However, they also had a secondary purpose; namely, to point out how high-school students might participate with adults in meeting a vital American need. Some of the means suggested are the interview, the survey, the panel discussion, and working with newspapers, civic groups, and leaders.

Perhaps the Able First

The reader may object to the two illustrations given on the ground that the projects could be carried forward only by the most able students. Although this objection underestimates the capacity of the "mine-run" of high-school students to contribute effectively to that which concerns them, it may have some validity in schools where youth have not had much experience in participation. In that situation, it is wise to initiate such problems with selected groups of students; for, if participation is to increase, the school must win community approval for whatever projects in participation it does undertake.

¹⁰ Evans, Hubert M.; Cray, Ryland M.; and Haas, C. Glenn. *Operation Atomic Vision*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals. 1948. 95 pp.

See also: Committee Report. "What is Operation Atomic Vision?" *Bulletin of NASSP*. Washington 6, D. C. Vol. 32, No. 154, April, 1948, pp. 198-204.

"Doing" Participation

However, there are problems which might well involve a whole class or school just launching upon the course of participation, for the solution of many problems involves "doing" as well as verbal procedures. For example, the Applied Economics Project of the Sloan Foundation subsidized three universities to work out with and for schools procedures and materials through which the school might aid community improvement in the areas of housing, food, and clothing. As an outcome, the *NEA Journal* for the first four months of 1947 provides rich suggestions for these areas. These four issues of the *Journal* dealt respectively with experimentation in housing (University of Florida), food (University of Kentucky), clothing (University of Vermont), and with extending the work of the three original centers to other colleges and schools throughout the country. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals also published an extended report of this work in its publication *THE BULLETIN*.¹¹

Increasing Skills

Teachers challenged by the possibilities of such school-community interaction usually want to learn more as to how to proceed. They may find one fruitful source for the implementation of their vision in such educational films as *Learning Through Co-operative Planning*¹² and *Learning Democracy Through School and Community Projects*.¹³ They will discover faculty interaction on the procedures used in such films mutually stimulative and enriching. They may also find another source of help in teachers with similar responsibilities and purposes at other schools; for kindred spirits almost certainly will have something to contribute in "know-how."

A caution in promoting participation is to proceed no faster than the student group is able to carry the implied responsibility successfully. It is better to work on intra-school problems until one's confidence in a student group is great enough to give reasonable expectation of effective work on school-community problems. However, teachers very commonly tend to underestimate the readiness of students to carry responsibilities in situations of vital concern to youth.

¹¹ See *Education for Improved Community Life*, (May, 1946) and *Secondary-School Provisions for Improved Living* (May, 1948) both issues of *THE BULLETIN* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington 6, D. C.

¹² *Learning Through Co-operative Planning*. Rental \$10.00, 20 minutes, Black and white, sound. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27, N. Y.

¹³ *Learning Democracy Through School and Community Projects*. Price \$72. Black and white, sound; \$150. colored. No charge for preview through Barley Film, Inc., 2044 N. Berindo, Hollywood. Produced by College of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

The Open House as a Medium For Public Relations

B. C. GUSTAVSON

THE Public Relations Program of Strong Vincent High School is based upon the philosophy that the parents and the public should play an integral part in helping to mold a better citizen. Under the leadership of a faculty committee, with the assistant principal as chairman, activities are planned for the purpose of bringing the school and its student population closer to the public. Strong Vincent High School has an enrollment of 1100 in grades seven through twelve, of which the Junior High School enrollment is 200.

One month prior to American Education Week, the faculty committee holds several meetings to discuss plans for the Open House. Ideas are tossed back and forth with free expression on the part of all members. Four years ago (1945), a flexible program was adopted whereby a certain number of departments would be featured each year.

TECHNIQUES USED

After the planning committee has agreed on the program, individual teachers assume responsibilities for publicity and for the co-ordination of the program to be presented. The techniques used are as follows:

1. One member of the committee takes charge of the newspaper publicity while another member looks after radio publicity.
2. The art teacher, who is a member of the planning committee, supervises the making of posters.
3. Another member assumes the task of having 1200 penny post cards printed with a special invitation to the parents. These cards are addressed, signed by the home-room teachers and then returned to the person responsible for mailing them.

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4. Parents receive them four days prior to the night set aside for Open House.
5. The assistant principal, together with the principal, meets with the teachers of the various departments called upon to present their part in the program. This necessitates one meeting only, for at the same time ideas are suggested as to what would be most educational and entertaining. Teachers are free to present what they think is most effective.
6. The PTA executive body is contacted and their publicity committee works in conjunction with the publicity committee from the faculty. The PTA president takes part in the program the night of Open House.
7. Two weeks prior to the time set for Open House, the individual departments submit the part each is to play in the over-all program.
8. The assistant principal, with the help of the commercial department, assembles the program. Mimeographed copies of the program are given to students in the homerooms, who take them home to their parents.
9. The day before Open House is held, a final rehearsal takes place in the school auditorium.
10. A student acts as the master of ceremonies.

THE PROGRAM IN ACTION

Doors of the school are opened at 6:45 P.M. and at 7:00 P.M., all the teachers are in their respective rooms to meet the parents. Usherettes are stationed throughout the building to help guide the visitors. The teachers remain in their rooms until 8:45, at which time a bell is rung. This is the signal for parents and teachers to assemble in the auditorium for the program. The auditorium of Strong Vincent High School will seat 1400 people. The assistant principal is proud to report that the auditorium has been filled each year. Moreover, many parents, who come to Open House to visit the teachers, are unable to stay for the auditorium program which gets under way at 9:00 P.M. and closes at 10:00 P.M.

Last year Open House was held on November 11, 1948. The following is a copy of the program.

<i>Time Limit</i>	<i>Number</i>
1. 1 Min.	Opening March
2. 1 Min.	Star Spangled Banner
3. 1 Min.	Flag Salute

4. 5 Min. Opening Remarks
5. 3. Min. Remarks by the PTA President
6. 7 Min. Music
 - A. March of Champions
 - B. Thanksgiving Fantasy
 - C. Down Maine Street March
7. 10 Min. Math Department Presents
 - A. A Trick Problem with Numbers
 - B. Visual Aids in Geometry
 - C. The Slide Rule
8. 25 Min. Language Department Presents
 - A. Spanish—The Opportunity Language Shopping Scene
 - B. Italian Department Presents
 - Dialogue in Italian
 - Dance—La Tarantella
 - Dialogue—At the Restaurant
 - Un bel Di
 - C. German Department Presents
 - The Jolly German (orchestra)
 - A Reading—A Dutchman's Troubles
 - A German Song
 - D. Latin Department Presents
 - Latin—The Basic Language
 - Illustrations of the English Language without Latin
 - Some common expressions used directly from Latin
 - Mottoes: United States and School
9. 3. Min. A Personal Evaluation of the Knowledge of Foreign Language
10. 15 Min. Drafting Department Presents
 - Drafting—A Language
 - Drafting in Action
 - Fields of Drafting
 - Who Should Study Drafting and Why?
11. 5 Min. Distributive Education
12. 5 Min. A' Cappella Choir
 1. Awake
 2. Behold a Rose of Beauty
 3. Rustling Leaves
13. School Song

Building a Public Relations Program Through Radio

FRANK G. DICKEY

THIS past year one of the large corporations in the United States spent over two and one-half million dollars in keeping the public informed concerning one particular product. This same business firm has also realized the necessity for keeping all stockholders informed regarding the status of their investments; therefore, in addition to the usual annual financial statement, this particular company employed a whole staff of "roving ambassadors" who went from one part of the country to another holding meetings with stockholders in order that all might have first-hand, up-to-date knowledge about their financial holdings.

The people of the United States have a tremendous investment in the public schools of this nation. Each individual is a stockholder and the professional educators are merely the paid executives of this multi-billion dollar public enterprise. For the past three or four years educational organizations and agencies at the national and state levels have been making a concerted effort to inform the populace of the United States concerning its investment in education. Scores of our leading magazines and newspapers have carried articles and stories centered about educational issues and problems. Speakers of national renown have toured the nation giving lectures and leading forums and discussions on education. Yet, the most influential public relations area of our democratic system, that of the local school community, has been left practically untouched in many localities. Individual communities are often ignorant of the needs and weaknesses of their schools and often equally as uninformed regarding the strengths and accomplishments of their schools. If our schools are to prosper and progress, the "stockholders" must

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be an informed group. Citizens who are compelled to depend upon rumor or hearsay for information regarding school problems and issues are often skeptical of requests from the schools. The public tends to consider the school as a rather remote and isolated agency. Therefore, a sound and continuing program of public school relations is an absolute necessity if our schools are to progress.

That there is a chasm between the school and the public is rather evident when we consider the lack of understanding which the average citizen has of the needs of the schools, the programs which are under way, or the accomplishment of today's schools. A speaker recently outlined three ways of attempting to cross a chasm. First, one might jump the chasm; however, this is very dangerous, for as David Lloyd-George once said, "The most dangerous thing in the world is to jump a chasm in two jumps." The second method presented was to climb down one side and up the other. This too is rather unsatisfactory. The most efficient and most lasting means of conquering the problem is to bridge the chasm. This problem of "bridging the chasm" between the community and the schools is one which involves many public relations techniques.

"Public relations" is a broad term and includes many connotations. No one means of disseminating school information can be listed as more successful or more satisfactory than certain others, for the particular situation and purpose must guide the school or schools in the selection of the public relations vehicle. However, it becomes more apparent that potentially one of the really effective media for the dissemination of information regarding the schools is the radio. This is not to say that magazines, newspapers, public forums, and other means of publicity are not effective. They are! But it is quite evident that the radio is often overlooked as an educational public relations instrument.

In recent years, one of the most potent single influences in the molding of community opinion regarding certain issues has been the radio. New hospitals have been built; recreational areas have been developed; and other community improvements have been made as a result of radio public relations. This trend is particularly true since the war years, because many small, community radio stations have been established. For example, in Kentucky, where a recent study has been made of the use of the radio station in public relations work in education, it was found that prior to 1940 there were only ten commercial radio stations in the state. In June, 1948, thirty-seven such stations were in operation. This is

a typical situation all over the country. As more and more small stations take the air, the greater are the possibilities for local schools to use these facilities for public relation purposes. For many years practically the only stations serving the country were large, powerful ones which served as many as a half-dozen states. It was not advisable for these stations to broadcast programs of purely local significance. Now, however, with hundreds of smaller, less powerful stations dotting the countryside, it becomes not only possible but also expedient to use these new stations for local purposes.

WHAT KENTUCKY STATIONS REVEAL

A recent survey of the activities of the radio stations operating in Kentucky reveals that relatively little use is being made of the radio as a public relations tool for education. A few better-staffed stations are working quite effectively in this field, but the large majority of the stations are doing nothing at all. Many critics have blamed this lack of use upon either the listening public or the radio stations themselves; however, the results of this study indicate that neither the station nor the listening public is as much at fault as the school itself. In answer to the question, "Do educational organizations and agencies provide you with sufficient releases to allow you to give full coverage to the educational scene in your community?" radio stations replied without exception, "No." When asked, "Do the public schools of your community contribute voluntarily to your programs?" only one program director replied, "Yes." All others were "No." To another question, "Would you welcome program contributions from your community schools?" all answered, "Yes."

As an indication that the listening public is not the only determining factor in the failure of the radio to be used as a means of informing the people regarding educational issues and problems, the following question and the replies are cited: "Have you received any comments from your listeners which would indicate that programs dealing with topics centered about public education are unpopular or judged in any different way from other programs?" The answers to this question in all cases were, "No." Such evidence points toward a weakness in the public relations program of the schools. With more co-operation and effort on the part of schools, much might be accomplished in molding public opinion on matters pertaining to education.

Radio programs dealing with the actual teaching processes, directed toward the school pupils, have not been included within this study. Had

such programs been included, however, it is quite probable that their absence would have been almost as noticeable as is that of the public relations type of program. Certainly, if England, Australia, or other nations were used as a comparative measure, our public school use of the radio as a tool for learning would not prove a credit to our schools.

Since this study of Kentucky radio stations dealt almost completely with public relations efforts, it seemed advisable to secure information from program directors concerning the percentage of broadcasting time devoted to programs which might be classified as dealing with problems and issues of public school education. The gentlemen to whom questionnaires were sent were quite conscientious in this as well as other aspects of the study, and, with one exception, all indicated that the percentage of time devoted to such broadcasts was well under one per cent of their time "on the air." The one program director who did not answer the above question reported that when he had actually computed the percentage of time devoted to public relations broadcasts during the past six weeks, it was such an "infinitesimal figure" that he hesitated to put it on the report. It must be admitted that this percentage figure is not entirely accurate, since many stations did not, for example, include the news broadcast coverage of a teachers' strike with a delineation of its issues and its causes as a type of public relations broadcast. Many stations did not include the mention of legislative considerations of appropriations for education on news broadcasts as a type of public relations. Nevertheless, the time spent in informing the public about one of its really great investments is relatively short.

The majority of readers will agree that, in spite of the dearth of time spent in public relations efforts, the schools have benefited immeasurably from many of the excellent programs which have been presented. Public opinion has been altered to a great extent in several instances by a well-organized systematic public relations program *via* radio. In an effort to obtain concrete examples of effective presentations, each of the thirty-seven stations contacted in the Kentucky study was requested to describe what it considered its most effective and significant programs concerning public education which had been put on the air during the past year. Response to this request was excellent and several of the programs described should be of special interest to those connected with secondary education.

SOME RADIO PROGRAMS DESCRIBED

From one station serving a thirty-mile radius comes this report. Early in the school year a high-school junior conceived the idea of acquainting

the public in his community with the activities of various secondary schools in that locality. Consequently, he sought the co-operation of six secondary schools in a project which resulted in a twelve-week series of programs. These presentations were often transcribed right in the school by the originator of the idea. Some of the programs presented musical or dramatic organizations of the schools, while some featured panel discussions of educational problems and issues. The response to this series of programs was excellent and plans are already under way to have these weekly half-hour programs continued during the present school year.

Another and different type of effort to acquaint the public with educational problems has been a weekly quarter-hour public service program entitled "American Story." This program, written and produced by the local radio station personnel, presents such items as safety, activities of boys' clubs, and public support of education. In several other instances radio stations reported that PTA groups or other similar organizations sponsored occasional programs. Such presentations, however, were the exception rather than the rule.

The phenomenal rise of radio during the past two decades has resulted in the development of a public relations technique full of social significance. If we hope to keep the public informed, interested, and working for educational advancement, every means must be employed. Radio certainly provides one excellent medium for improving public relations in education.

Travel Service Publishes 1950 Tour Booklet

THE 1950 booklet describing the summer travel program of the National Education Association is now being distributed by the NEA Division of Travel Service. Itineraries and costs for tours to Cuba, Mexico, New England-Quebec, Eastern Cities, Canadian Rockies-Pacific Northwest, Pacific Northwest-California, Rocky Mountains-California-Southwest, National Parks, Central America, Alaska, and Hawaii are included in the booklet. New tour areas include the National Parks, Alaska, Central America, and Hawaii. A special post-convention tour to Mexico will follow the NEA meeting in St. Louis in July. Two-color map posters showing the routes of the 1950 tours have also been prepared for bulletin-board use by the Travel Division. Full information on all tours, as well as copies of the booklet and posters, may be obtained from the Division of Travel Service, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C.

Core Studies—A Concept

ANNA BROCHICK, Chairman

IN their experimentation with "core" work at the University Demonstration High School (grades 7-10), teachers who have worked for several years together in the area are basically agreed upon at least four considerations regarding those they teach:

1. The individual student transcends systems of education or prescribed courses of study in any subject-matter field.
2. That for all of their apparently human similarities, students are individually different and that this fact must receive primary consideration if they are to be taught.
3. That these individual differences necessarily call for departures from many established practices in their education.
4. That the purpose of their education is ultimately the release of their individual potentialities in the interest of their personal and group development.

At times, the work finds all groups co-operating toward some accomplishment; at other times, a part of the groups work together upon a common interest or problem or experience; at still other times, each group proceeds individually. Within this general co-operative pattern, however, is found the basic framework upon which core experiences are founded; namely, the provision of experiences and ideas for the development of the individual pupil.

Several factors, it might be explained, affect the materials and procedures in our work—first of all, the individual himself and the need for

This article discusses the work of the Core Curriculum Committee of the school composed of Ann Brochick, Chairman, Mary Alice Semon, Bernice Smrek, and Elizabeth Gates—all of the University High School, West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va. It was submitted by the Principal George H. Colebank.

his growth in some particular direction. Other determining factors in the choice of what is to be done include a problem to be solved, a question of community interest, or a matter of world concern. When asked what subjects are included in the core curriculum course we answer with the following:

Since our primary task is the development in our pupils of proper attitudes and beliefs towards themselves and others, we feel that one area of the work can properly be called the "social living" area or the phase of study usually concerned with the social studies. Secondly, since our important task is that of communication of ideas, feelings, and facts among human beings, we feel that core studies are justified in the claim that they meet one of the greatest objectives in the teaching of English, namely communication. We feel further, that we meet the objectives of the teaching of English in that experiences within this area of our curriculum experimentation provide numerous opportunities for individual expression in speaking, reading, and writing.

If pressed further for the answer as to what other subject matter is included in the work, it might be justifiably said that music and art are called upon in providing for the growth experiences of our core pupils. Although we include similar experiences from year to year, we do, in recognition of the needs of our students try faithfully to adjust our experiences, methods, and materials to their needs.

There underlies in all of our work, however, the firm purpose of education for attitudes and beliefs, for "as a man thinketh in his heart so is he." Often our task is a difficult one, for we are convinced there is no *single* pattern to which we can turn for the educating of the young in proper attitudes toward themselves and others and toward society itself, particularly a democratic society. Often we as core teachers find ourselves changing our minds about the ways in which we and our students must move toward our accomplishment. Our ways of dealing with our students give us jolts, for in faithful recognition of individuality, we find the extremely unexpected; yes, even the shockingly unexpected. These situations, in the name of true education, call for the sometimes difficult creation of flexible methods. These methods, although unprescribed by textbook or course of study, find us becoming less and less fearful of approaches from year to year.

OBJECTIVES FOR CORE GROUPS

Have you any common objectives in the work? we are asked. Four years ago, five teachers-of-core with their pupils set up the following general objectives:

A General Statement:

To study with our pupils ways in which we may come to understand more significantly one's attitude towards oneself, toward others. To realize more significantly our reactions to nature, and to life generally. Some more specific aims are:

1. Orientation to immediate environment
 - A. Helping the student to find his place in his own age group.
 - B. Helping the student to realize his position in the school organization.
 - C. Helping him to a better understanding of his part in the life of his family.
 - D. Helping him to know where he belongs in his community.
 - E. An encouragement of opportunities for better understanding of human relationships—at home (the family) and at school (boy and girl relationships. Special groups such as committees, etc.)
2. The development of a sense of values in appreciation of the inherent worth of all groups in the scheme of things (labor, capital, all occupations, races, nationalities, and cultures.)
 - A. An understanding of the interdependency of various industries in Monongalia County.
 1. Coal production
 2. Glass Manufacturing
 3. Other industries and businesses
3. An awareness of the beauty and worth of our local "natural" environment; that is, the appreciation for those aspects which are peculiar to Monongalia County.
 - A. Animal life in the county—the deer, the bear, the squirrel, etc.
 - B. A study of the conditions which make this life possible within our locality.
 - C. A knowledge of protective laws for this life.
 - D. Encouragement of expression of experiences with this aspect of nature; that is, individual experiences.
 - E. A knowledge of trees within the county, and what they furnish as to utility and beauty.
 1. Trees on our own school grounds
 2. Trees in our communities
 3. Trees on the university campus

F. An appreciation for such landmarks as: Cooper's Rock, Our Municipal Park, Dorsey's Knob, the Monongahela River, etc.

How Are We Trying to Meet Our Objectives?

1. It is difficult to list every means used for reaching our objectives, and needless to say, our methods vary. It can, we believe, be said in the spirit of experimentation that in regard to the first general statement of the aforesaid objectives, we are trying to use every opportunity for showing the need for respect for one's self and his classmates. In one core group, the teacher tells of the continuous aim being to learn (1) to listen to a classmate when he is speaking, and (2) to speak with consideration for all members of the group.

Frequent reminders and short discussions of the concern show a marked improvement in group spirit and accomplishment. Every core teacher has had the difficult task of assisting a student in making proper adjustment. Every core teacher has had to deal with timid, uncommunicative individuals who, through good pupil-teacher relationships, have come in time to be worthy school citizens and even leaders.

Since the majority of our core pupils live close to nature, it is significant that we use opportunities for expression of reactions to life about them. Core classes have excellent discussions on the wild life of their environment. Since many of them are themselves hunters, there is an exceptional opportunity for the learning and discussion of the game laws of the state and county. Many of our core pupils, especially the younger ones, have fascinating stories of the deer which abound in the hills surrounding their homes. There are also stories of the beaver, the rabbit, the squirrel, and the bear. Sharing of personal experiences with plant and animal life is encouraged. Since the deer is plentiful in Monongalia County, good tales about hunting experiences recur annually as deer season returns.

General group discussions, vitally concerned with the growth of core groups characterize many core classes. A few such discussions include these:

1. Good group behavior in assembly.
2. The cost of food and clothing.
3. The proper way to celebrate Halloween.
4. Coming to school by bus.
5. What it costs to attend high school.
6. What is meant by freedom with responsibility.
7. The need to know how to guide one's self in his work.
8. Proper use of one's time.

ILLUSTRATIVE UNITS

A few units which illustrate how core teachers are trying to develop a curriculum concurrent with the life of the learner are described below. The unit of work entitled "Who Am I" illustrates the provision of experiences by means of which students have the opportunity to see significantly their place in the scheme of things in American community life. The unit provides for a sharing of cultural and educational experiences, thus helping the student in an appreciation of the contributions of various cultural groups.

A second unit, which illustrates a departure from ordinary school procedures is the one called "food and human destiny." The unit is an illustration of a pupil-teacher planned piece of work and had its origin during the war when the world was vitally concerned with its destiny in regard to food. Unusual activities and subject matter suggest the possibilities of significant teaching in this unit.

A unit which helps new pupils in the school to find their places in their groups is one which deals with the history and purpose of the University Demonstration High School itself. There is a unit, too, called "Into the World of Men and Women Whose Labors Make My Own Life More Significant." This unit gives opportunities for visits and interviews with men and women who work in the various industries of our county. Much is still needed in this unit in organizing the means for learning, but students in this group are beginning to appreciate the interdependency of all industries and the contribution of the industries of our locality to the world. The field for opportunity in this study is broad, and core pupils and teachers are continually at work from year to year trying to utilize the opportunities which the area presents.

In regard to the social growth of core pupils, it is generally agreed that the school lunch hour provides one of the best opportunities for good experiences. Over a period of years, core groups with their teachers have enjoyed the idea of planning luncheons, patterned after the "we're expecting company" at home experience. Students have charge of inviting guests, arranging tables, and planning for the attractiveness of the occasion. Perhaps the best test of the value of the luncheon experience is that students request a repetition of the luncheon and grow increasingly in taking the initiative for planning such activities.

Field trips have been used significantly in core work. Almost every unit of work provides an opportunity for calling on the community or environs for assistance in solving a problem. Individuals whose lives and work can

help core pupils to understand better some undertaking are often called upon.

THE VALUE OF A TWO-HOUR PERIOD

There comes to core teachers from others the question as to our reason for scheduling core periods for the duration of two hours. The two-hour period, we have felt, is advantageous for the following reasons:

1. It provides good opportunities and more time for "seeing a job through" without interruption of a bell.
2. It provides for the development of a steadiness of purpose.
3. It is an advantage in that it offers a better opportunity for pupil-teacher planning and the utilization of time toward the accomplishment of purposes.
4. It provides more time for the field trip and social activity which are often the basis or outcome of our work.

SUMMARY

If they can summarize the spirit of their efforts, the core teachers would like to have these efforts thought of as experimental. They would have it understood, too, that by no means do they believe they have arrived at a complete answer to their task. There is much to be learned and many ways yet to be discovered. Time and circumstances, as they affect the individual pupil and the groups made up of individuals, will determine greatly the direction in which both teachers and pupils will move toward the development of a deeper concern for oneself and for other people and their problems, and a willingness on the part of all to participate in the efforts for improving conditions of living for ourselves and others.

Future Teachers of America Makes Rapid Membership Strides

THE rapid growth of Future Teachers of America clubs and chapters throughout the nation is indicated in figures released by Mrs. Wilda F. Faust, FTA national secretary. The report shows a record of 315 college chapters and 668 high-school clubs. Thirty-seven new chapters have been chartered since the *Ninth FTA Yearbook* was published in February, 1949, and 100 new clubs have been organized since the *Manual for FTA Clubs in High schools* was issued in July, 1949. The State Teachers College of Indiana, Pa., holds the largest college chapter membership record with 291 future teachers. Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, follows with 227 members. Information on organizing FTA groups may be obtained from the national office, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C.

How Can We Organize the High-School Curriculum to Serve the Life Problems of Youth

PAUL B. JACOBSON

FOR a half century we have been actively interested in improving secondary education provided for young people as the high-school enrolment continued to double every decade. *Education For All American Youth*, published by the Educational Policies Commission, *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*, published by the U.S. Office of Education and sponsored by many professional organizations, including the American Association of School Administrators and the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the Harvard Report on *General Education in a Free Society* are all indications of our continuing efforts to make the secondary school conform more nearly to what we know about the psychological development of young people and to take cognizance of the facts about the social system in which we operate. Before technology freed many of our citizens from grinding toil from sunrise to sunset to eke out an existence, it mattered little that some boys and girls were not adequately provided for in the secondary school. There was important work for them to do in the factory, on the farm; and in the conquering of the West. But as our nation approaches economic maturity, and technology makes man ever more productive, youth are required to attend school. The program must be made palatable and substantial.

This article deals not with the specific curriculum content, but rather with the guidance and administrative aspects of the curriculum in an effort to meet the Life Problems of young people. Originally we thought that specific vocational training would provide for the needs of many of our young people who were enrolled in school. For some of them it was of inestimable value, say, perhaps for twenty per cent. For another twenty and twenty-five

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per cent, the traditional college preparatory curriculum has been effective and will continue to be provided, but for the major fifty or sixty per cent something else is necessary. They do not need specific job training because they are not going into the skilled trades, yet they need training in learning how to work. A recent sampling study which is believed to be representative of seventy per cent of the American workers reveals that two thirds of the jobs demand of the workers who perform them successfully nothing beyond graduation from an elementary school.¹ Employers who have been questioned stated that two thirds of the workers assigned to the job could reach full production in a week or less and that only ten per cent require more than six months on-the-job training. Furthermore, only about one eighth of our gainfully employed population is engaged as foremen or skilled workers for which vocational education is preparatory, and only about seven per cent in the professions for which college preparatory courses are prerequisites. For nearly half of the young people in the United States, there is no alternative but beginning employment as unskilled or semiskilled laborers. For these people, work which has been closely articulated with the program of the school is more important than training for a specific occupation.

Recent information, collected by Johnstone, related to the automotive industry which we have often thought of as relatively skilled employment. With the classification prepared by the United States Employment Service, Johnstone found that 96.2 per cent of the jobs required grammar school or less and of 286 different jobs, only eleven required high-school graduation or nontechnical knowledge. She concluded on the basis of her analysis that forty-two per cent of the jobs in the automotive industry were skilled, thirty-three per cent were semiskilled, and twenty-five per cent nonskilled.² It seems quite clear that the community has a responsibility to find the learning jobs for young people, perhaps along the lines discussed in *Education For All American Youth*, and that the school has a responsibility to co-ordinate the work experience with the school experience. The 1948 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, *The Expanding Role of Education*, indicated that fifty-four per cent of the schools which answered a questionnaire sent out on a random basis, provided work experience as part of the process of growing up. Even though a relatively large per-

¹ Bell, Howard. *Matching Youth and Jobs*, Washington, D. C. American Council on Education. 1940. P. 56.

² See Jacobson, P. B., "Occupations and Work Experience," *The High School Curriculum*. New York: Ronald Press. 1947. P. 279.

cent of the schools which have been questioned provide work experience, the battle is only half won.

In addition, every school should furnish a course in occupations as a part of general education so that every young person may know something about the world of work and its opportunities. Certainly it can be defended on just as good grounds as any of the older cultural subjects which are standard practice in most of the 28,000 high schools of the nation.

NEED FOR FIELD TRIPS

Closely connected with the course in occupations and recommended by all authoritative committees which have studied the matter are field trips, both within and without the community, to acquaint young people with working conditions and opportunities. In primitive society man was obliged to learn all of the skills necessary for life, such as reaping, threshing, preparing the soil, caring for animals, and preparing tools and implements. Later came the handcraft industry in which the young man was obliged to learn a trade. The factory system reduced the general craftsman to a worker and has greatly narrowed specialization which is required of the individual laborer. In clothing construction, the process is broken down into twenty-five or thirty operations such as sewing on sleeves or making button holes. On the conveyor belt in a packing house, work has become so subdivided that a single worker may use a blow torch to remove the hair from the left ear of each of more than a thousand hogs in the course of a few hours.

If the worker in industry could be certain to keep his job or did not change from one industry to another, his vocational preparation would be relatively simple. What he would need would be work experience so that he knew how to get along with the foreman and his fellow workers; how to save time, energy, and materials; how to work for sustained periods of time; and how to handle an automatic and semiautomatic machine. But man cannot be depended on to keep one job—in fact, the evidence we have indicates that he is likely to have many in a lifetime. There must be retraining programs, provision for related information for persons who are upgrading themselves through training in industry, and follow-up on the job to see how well the workers are adjusting.

NEED FOR COUNSELORS

Another need in secondary education is the provision for counselors so that every boy and girl may have an opportunity to have an individual

interview with an interested counselor for a period of a half hour not less than three times a year to discuss personal problems, his high-school courses, and his future educational opportunities. In a recent study published by Zeran and Jones of 24,314 high schools which answered their questionnaire, only 4,168 had counselors, or approximately one sixth. And in these schools, the counselor was provided in a ratio of one to 398 or for about half the number which is recommended.³ Perhaps it is appropriate to say also that in those schools which have counseling, an individual folder and a series of tests is necessary if counseling is to be removed from the realm of guess work. Meager as the number of counselors is, the survey shows significant improvement over a period of ten years.

NEED FOR ADMINISTRATIVE ADJUSTMENTS

If the school curriculum is to provide for the life problems of youth, there are certain administrative arrangements which are necessary. One is the schedule which will allow the type of program which is needed. A core program or a program of common learning which necessitates two or three consecutive hours makes schedule making more difficult, but it is necessary if we believe in the new curriculum. Perhaps nowhere more than in developing democratic relationships with the faculty are improvements needed, although considerable progress has been made in this area. If we believe in democracy, it must be practiced among members of the faculty. Teachers desire a responsibility in developing policies within the building and, having helped build the policy, will support it within the building and outside. If we are to train young people for democracy, they, too, must also have some practice in democracy within the school. Perhaps it can be done as well in the extracurriculum as anywhere else. A student council⁴ is a logical place for the development of student initiative as it can well serve as the hub from which all extracurricular activities in the school receive their direction.

In a study carried out a few years ago by Trump in the North Central Association, there is indication that many schools are giving young people a share in the development of the extracurriculum activities and in their management. Among other things, management involves legislative control of the funds for the extracurriculum and in a quarter of the schools

³ Zeran, F. R., and Jones, Galen, "The National Picture of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Service," *Bulletin of National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, October, 1948, p. 17.

⁴ The Student Council in the Secondary School, Washington, D. C.: National Association of Student Councils. 1949.

which Jacobson and Brogue studied in 1940, legislative control of the extra-curriculum funds was standard practice. The practice of democratic interaction between the principal and the faculty and between the faculty and the students ought to be standard in every American high school.

NEED FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

A fourth way in which we can serve the life problems of youth is by studying learning problems with the faculty. Researches indicate that principals all too frequently are concerned only with administrative matters in the school. If there is sufficient time, they then spend it on the management of the extracurriculum or on guidance program. As a result, very little time remains for instructional leadership, all too frequently because the principal feels inadequate to furnish educational leadership. This, of course, reflects his training. Such inquiries as have been made to teachers indicate that they desire educational leadership and help with professional problems which relate directly to the classroom. Any principal who undertakes such a simple matter as testing the reading ability of the high-school students and studies the results with his faculty is tackling an educational problem of importance and is well on the way toward providing educational leadership. In ninety per cent of the high schools at least fifty per cent of the pupils will be below grade in reading, by definition, and twenty-five per cent will be two or more years below grade. Such a serious deficiency means that they cannot profit from the same type of reading material as the more fortunate pupils. A remedial reading program is necessary. Co-operative study of the materials dealing with remedial reading, purchase of those materials, installation of them in the classroom, visitation of the classroom to assist the teacher in their use, discussions and follow-up constitute a valuable type of educational leadership.

The development of curriculum materials to fit the needs of young people is another illustration of educational leadership. When Paul Pierce became the principal of the Wells High School in Chicago, the faculty made a survey of the blighted area which constituted the school's district. Home duties in the area consisted of taking care of younger brothers and sisters, bringing home wood which meant carting home anything combustible and not nailed down. Running water was a luxury in the homes represented, and bathtubs were practically nonexistent. On the basis of the community survey, a course in general science was reconstructed to provide materials on nutrition, cleanliness, health, and sanitation rather than on steam engines, electric motors, and the more traditional material found

in general science. As a result of this leadership in the development in the science area, further changes were made until it is reasonable to say that the school became an outstanding example of curriculum development, very largely because of the interest and ingenuity of the principal.

NEED FOR LIBRARY MATERIALS

Perhaps a final area in administration which can be mentioned is the provision of library materials. Far too many of our schools are inadequately supplied. Classroom libraries are a necessity if we believe in the newer type of classroom procedure with research carried on in a learning laboratory rather than question-and-answer recitation. Such developments cannot take place overnight, but they can be solved in a decade by anyone who will work at it; and in the provision of library materials it is only reasonable to provide some on the professional level for teachers.

PLANNING FOR INCREASED ENROLMENTS

The Educational Policies Commission of the NEA makes the following recommendations:

1. The educational needs arising from the increased birth rate call for both immediate public action and long-range planning. These needs should be brought forcefully to the attention of the American people by press, radio, and moving pictures; by responsible leaders in local, state, and national government; by citizens' organizations; and by the teaching profession.
2. State and local education authorities—school boards and school administrators—should make careful surveys of their respective jurisdictions in order to determine their present shortage in school buildings and personnel and to forecast future needs.
3. High School and college faculties and parents should advise and assist more able young people to enter the teaching profession—and particularly to prepare for teaching in the elementary schools.
4. Both standards and salaries for teaching should be raised. It is especially urgent that standards and salaries for elementary-school teaching be as high as for secondary-school teaching. This is elementary to enlist more recruits and to return more of the present personnel.
5. The public at large should join with the teaching profession in efforts to eliminate makeshift expedients—such as overcrowding school buildings, increasing the number of pupils assigned to each teacher, curtailing the school day by operating double shifts, and employing unqualified teachers.
6. More funds for public school building construction should be provided immediately by local, state, and Federal governments.
7. The state and Federal governments should provide increased funds to help meet the rising costs of education.

Controversial Issues Involved in Work-Experience Programs

BILL A. SAMPSON and
PAUL B. JACOBSON

WORK experience programs are becoming very popular in secondary schools across the United States. A perusal of the current literature available pertaining to work experience programs reveals many problems that must be solved by an administrator wishing to develop a program of work experience. Many of these problems are automatic; that is, they are solved by the decision to install the program. Others are decided by factors involving the philosophy of the school and external local conditions. It was also observed that some of the problems involved are highly controversial and it is these problems that will require a great deal of consideration on the part of the administrator. If the program is to be successful, a position must be taken on these problems in the light of local conditions. Some of these controversial issues are discussed in the following paragraphs. There is no point in attempting to evaluate the importance of any one controversy. Local conditions would probably render such an evaluation invalid. Therefore, the order of presentation has nothing whatever to do with the relative importance of the controversies. It is not intended that these should be considered the only controversial issues, but only some of them.

Should credit toward graduation be granted for work experience activities both in school and in other public or private institutions? This problem has been discussed very thoroughly in current literature. Although the majority would answer "yes" to the question, there is quite a range in intensity of feeling. An administrator must decide whether or not credit will be granted for work experience activities, and if so, how much. It is important that the decision be consistent with the philosophy of the

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school. Inconsistencies in activities with the philosophy of the school account for many of the problems facing school administrators.

Jacobson¹ says that not more than one sixth of the amount required for graduation should be granted. Dillon² found in his study of eleven major programs that the range was from fifteen per cent to twenty-five per cent of the total number of credits required for graduation. Turrell³ indicates that credit should be granted but doesn't say how much. One would assume from his article that they granted in the neighborhood of forty per cent. These examples serve to illustrate the range. A school administrator has a real task on his hands when he attempts to solve this problem and then justify his solution in the light of local circumstances. It is highly desirable that a solution be arrived at that will not require alteration of the program in the near future. It must be a solution agreeable to all, or as nearly all as is possible, of the parties involved in the planning.

What proportion of the student's time should be spent in school and what proportion on the job?—This problem is closely related to how much credit should be given. The administrator must decide how much advantage is to be gained from work experience and how much comes from classroom work. It is difficult to draw the line and perhaps it should be flexible to suit individual cases. The more the program varies, the more difficult the program is to administer. Once again it was found that practice has a great range. Dillon⁴ suggests that age, data from health examinations, time required for travel, time required for home work, time required for recreation, etc., should be considered. He says that work should be excluded that takes place before the regular hour school opens and after six in the evening. Weber⁵ reports a project that divides the student's time on a fifty-fifty basis as does Turrell⁶. Certainly allowing less than four hours in school must be considered less than full-time attendance.

Will the local labor unions present a problem?—This problem must be present in most of the difficulties. It is one that must be approached very realistically. The administrator's responsibility will involve a very careful study to determine just how much the labor union groups will be related

¹ Jacobson, Paul B. "School Participation in Out-of-Work Experience," *High School Journal*, 30:2-63: March-April, 1947.

² Dillon, Harold J. *Work Experience in Secondary Education*. New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1946, 96 p.

³ Turrell, Archie M. "Not School or Work but Work and School," *School Executive*, 62:19-20; May, 1943.

⁴ *Op. cit.*

⁵ Weber, Charles A. "An Evaluation of Work Experience," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 25:30-43; October, 1942.

⁶ *Op. cit.*

to the program. It will be necessary for him to secure the co-operation and enthusiasm. Giving the labor unions a place in the planning process will probably obtain the desired results.

In current literature the following attitudes were expressed. Dillon⁷ found that organized labor felt it should be adequately represented in groups planning and operating the program and that controls should be tight. Gilchrist⁸ recommends that the co-operation of labor groups be obtained. Mann⁹ states that assignments which are competitive in nature with those already carried on by regular employees should not be considered desirable assignments. Turrell¹⁰ reports of a satisfactory organized labor relationship with a work experience program. The administrator must first determine if the problem exists. If so, to what degree, and then go about obtaining as equitable a solution as possible. If co-operation is not obtained, the program will be seriously handicapped.

When should the work experience program begin?—This problem will be present in varying degrees, depending upon the organization of the school system. It is highly desirable that the program plan include the age range of participating students and that the administrator should be able to defend the position taken. Factors such as community attitude, child labor laws, health conditions, job conditions, etc., must be considered in making this decision.

Dillon¹¹ points out that child labor laws should be strictly observed in the placement of students on a work program. His study revealed that work experience can provide one means for meeting the needs of students under sixteen at a critical point in their development. Koos¹² warns against the possibility that employers will attempt to perpetuate wartime relaxation of child labor laws. He reports that child labor regulation controlling the employment of fourteen and fifteen year olds has been restored to its pre-war standard. Turrell¹³ reports a program involving sixteen and seventeen year old boys.

How should student participants be selected?—The administrator must be sure selections are wisely made in order that the employers will be satis-

⁷ *Op. cit.*

⁸ Gilchrist, Robert S. "Work Experience—Its Possibilities for the Secondary School" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 97:38-99; March, 1941.

⁹ Mann, George C. "Value of Work in Education in the Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 97:83-89; March, 1941.

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*

¹¹ *Op. cit.*

¹² Koos, Leonard V. "Child Labor During and After the War," *School Review*, 54:3-4; January, 1946.

¹³ *Op. cit.*

fied and will continue to support the program. Employers must be oriented to expect a misfit occasionally but these cases should be held to a minimum by wise selection. An adequate guidance and supervisory organization is essential. The administrator must be sure the students selected to participate in the program understand the objectives of the program and that they are anxious to participate under those conditions.

Dillon¹⁴ concludes that selection should be based on individual student's interests or needs for work experience as a factor in his educational and social adjustment through health examinations; examination of all data on cumulative records; and conferences with the student, parent, teacher and counselor. Turrell¹⁵ reports the use of mental ability and aptitude tests in selection.

AMERICA'S NEW FOUR HUNDRED

(Continued from page 187)

hope for democracy in this country." This is accepted by the writer as a challenge as he works with young people. Student participation, the Student Council, if you please, is one of the very finest ways of making possible open channels of learning and information.

Let the school teacher and administrator who care about their ultimate contribution to their country's growth take heed. Student Council may be your answer to the problems in your school, for you may pray, as many do, for an electorate that is intelligent, not necessarily because of possession of a college degree, but because somewhere in school there was that opportunity for intelligent leadership, discerning followership, and sympathetic co-operation that make for the democratic way of life.

Ecclesiastes says, "Of making many books there is no end." So, too, in today's life we must not confine our contemplation merely to written materials, but we must turn to the life of the young people for a demonstration of the worth-whileness of the student participation movement.

Give us more Student Council Conferences. Give us a "New Four Hundred" in every one of the forty-eight states. Then, as the power and spirit of democratic living become evident, can we justify the building of schools, stadiums, and even courses of study.

¹⁴ *Op. cit.*

¹⁵ *Op. cit.*

Teaching Human Relations

HAROLD SCHIFF

A TOOL for incorporating human relations material in the curriculum is offered to social studies teachers by a new series of pamphlets known as Freedom Pamphlets. Realizing the need for sound and constructive materials in this field, two national organizations, the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith and the American Education Fellowship have jointly produced a series of *Freedom Pamphlets* to bring to teachers and students authoritative presentations of the many facets of the problems of group relations.

The Anti-Defamation League, founded more than thirty-five years ago, is devoted to advancing greater understanding among all Americans. It works to foster the ideal of mutual respect for, and acceptance of, all the various groups and peoples that compose our society. Among other activities, the ADL carries out a broad educational program to create a climate of public opinion favorable to wholesome intergroup relations. Such *media* as radio, films, advertising, filmstrips, books, and pamphlets are employed to reach all segments of the American people. With the rise of the subject of intercultural education in our school system, ADL has been increasingly concerned with providing appropriate materials for use in the schools. The *Freedom Pamphlets* series was conceived with this aim in mind.

The ADL called in as a partner in this enterprise the American Education Fellowship, an association of educators. Out of a common realization that genuine democracy must be ultimately grounded in good relations between individuals and groups, the AEF and ADL agreed to pool their resources to produce a series of basic pamphlets embracing every area of human relations.

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Under special arrangements made by Dr. Theodore Brameld, a vice-president of the AEF and Professor of Education at New York University, it was agreed that AEF members, experts in various subject matters bearing on human relations, would write a number of pamphlets for the series. Dr. Brameld serves as editorial consultant for the series, which is under the editorship of Frank N. Trager, ADL program director.

THE SCOPE OF THE PAMPHLETS

Freedom Pamphlets deal with all phases of the American scene in terms of the relations of men with their fellowmen of different races, creeds, and national origins. Among the areas covered by this series are education, theater, radio, literature, films, art, politics, science, labor, and international co-operation. Each of these areas is treated by an outstanding authority who brings his special knowledge and experience to bear to show how that area impinges on, or can contribute to, the creation of good human relations.

Freedom Pamphlets are already being used as texts and classroom material in high-school and college courses throughout the country. To date eight pamphlets have come off the press. The following account will indicate their scope and character.

Inaugurating the series was "The Responsibility Is Ours" by Bonaro W. Overstreet, an authority on adult education and community action. In this pamphlet, Mrs. Overstreet gives a lucid analysis of the individual's personal responsibility for building better human relations, and to that degree, a better world. She shows how the individual and his aspirations can help bring about a more vital human society.

Following this appeared "Danger in Discord" by Oscar Handlin, Professor of Social Science at Harvard University, and his wife, Mary. Here, the Handlins uncover the factors that explain how anti-Semitism, a phenomenon so much at odds with the American tradition, has struck tenuous roots in American soil. They point out that anti-Semitism, far from being native to the American environment, entered the fabric of American society only with the emergence of a false racial ideology toward the end of the nineteenth century, which became the basis of a new pattern of social and economic discrimination.

In the third pamphlet, "The Radio Listener's Bill of Rights", Charles A. Sipmann, Chairman of the Department of Communications at New York University, demonstrates the great contribution which radio can make to the solution of social tensions and bad human relations. The techniques of radio can do more than entertain, or even inform; they can identify listeners

with the larger community and its problems. But whether radio discharges its social obligations is up to the listening public. The formation of radio listeners councils is the best means of ensuring that radio realizes its true potentialities.

"ABC's of Scapegoating," by Gordon W. Allport, Professor of Psychology at Harvard University, is an examination of the phenomenon of scapegoating, its causes and cures. The prejudices acquired in childhood and the habit of thinking in stereotypes are the pre-conditions of scapegoating. Under stress, the individual's insecurities cause prejudice to break out into open aggression against some "goat." The chief methods of combatting scapegoating are education, which can help immunize against the psychological mechanisms of scapegoating, changing the social and economic conditions that breed frustration and fear, and legislation to protect the victims of scapegoating.

"Modern Education and Better Human Relations" by Professor Emeritus William H. Kilpatrick of Teachers College, outlines an educational program that will build sound human relations among all our people. The goal of the modern school, Dr. Kilpatrick asserts, should be to teach all children to live together co-operatively. If children of different groups start early to work and plan together, they will grow to respect each other as persons. Older students should study the scientific facts of discrimination to understand fully that there are no inborn differences. They should be taught to know and to respect the cultural contributions of each group as well as to understand the discrimination directed against minority groups.

A program for the full extension of civil rights is set forth by President Edward J. Sparling of Roosevelt College, Chicago, in "Civil Rights: Barometer of Democracy." Dr. Sparling analyzes in detail the four areas of civil rights highlighted in the Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights. He argues the need for both a legislative and an educational program. He urges passage of fair employment practices bills, anti-lynching and anti-poll tax bills, and the abolition of college quota systems. The long-range educative program must be aimed at the roots of prejudice, which lie at the base of the overt denial of civil rights. This involves more and better education, designed to foster sound intergroup attitudes among our children.

In "UNESCO In Focus," James L. Henderson, Lecturer in Education at the University of London, describes the history and evaluates the prospects of the UN organization dedicated to "constructing the defenses of peace in the minds of men." The basic foundations of international unity must

be laid early—in the school and family—and developed through adult life by various projects which will evoke a sympathetic attitude toward the peoples of the world. Some specific examples are: pen friendships among youth of different nations; student exchanges; and international relations clubs to help dissolve the barriers to international understanding. UNESCO, the organized symbol through which we can combat prejudice and ignorance, needs and deserves the support of the citizenry of the world.

A new concept of adult education is advanced by S.E.T. Lund, Professor of Education at the University of California, in "The School-Centered Community." It is one in which citizens continue the learning process by joining together to study and act on their own community problems. For example, in the area of human relations, interracial groups can be formed to study some community need of interest to all the participants. Or a group could work directly on such problems as segregated housing, or inequality of educational opportunity in the community. A host of other community problems can serve as profitable topics for the adult education process. The "school-centered community" both enables us to play our roles as citizens more intelligently, and helps us to understand better the larger problems of the state, the nation, and the world.

Fifth National Citizenship Conference

FIFTY representatives of labor organizations, the National Association of Manufacturers, the United States Chamber of Commerce, and many other national organizations met in December for a planning session for the Fifth National Conference on Citizenship to be held in Washington, D. C., May 22-24. The conference is sponsored annually by the National Education Association and the United State Department of Justice.

The official report of the Fourth National Conference on Citizenship held last May in New York City is now available from the NEA Citizenship Committee, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C., at fifty cents each. The report includes a message from Vice President Alben W. Barkley who served as honorary chairman of the conference; and texts of speeches delivered at the conference including those by New York City Mayor William O'Dwyer; Senator George D. Aiken from Vermont; Senator Hubert H. Humphrey from Minnesota; Anna Lord Strauss, president of the League of Women Voters; and Supreme Court Justice Tom C. Clark, formerly attorney general of the United States. Approximately 1000 delegates representing civic, educational, patriotic, and youth organizations throughout the nation took part in last year's conference.

The Foreign Language Imbroglia

CHAS. W. LOVY

THE Foreign Language controversy has now been raging for a good number of years, bringing forth all possible arguments, and a few impossible ones, to prove that foreign languages should be made the very core of the curriculum, or that their study is a complete waste of time. Between these two extremes, all shades of opinion have found expression. If Oliver Goldsmith's Chinaman visited the United States today, he would expect,—having read the Harvard Report—,¹ to find all high-school students studying Greek, Latin, French, and Russian as the key to the humanities, or, having read Morrison—,² to find not a single foreign language course in any of the schools. Being used to the unexpected from his wanderings in England, 200 years ago, our Chinaman would perhaps not be too surprised to discover that most schools continue to offer language courses of one kind or another, that hardly any of these courses are patterned on the theories advanced by authoritative writers and committees, and that the foreign language class in this country is, on the average, a museum of everything ever tried in this field.

Leaving the celestial sphere of theoretical discussion, and coming down to earth, we have to acknowledge the plain fact that language classes are being held, that the most common course is an elective one of four years, and that thirty per cent of the students drop out after the first year, sixty per cent after the second, and that less than ten per cent carry on to the end. Whether foreign language courses are bound to become the "key to the humanities" or to vanish altogether from the curriculum is an interesting

¹ *General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee. Princeton: Harvard University Press. 1945.

² Morrison, H. C. *The Curriculum of the Common School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1940.

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theoretical problem, but the more interesting practical problem is how to make the courses, as they are at present and as long as they are on the curriculum, as useful as possible for the students.

The purpose of the present article is in no way to reopen the never closed foreign language controversy, but to assist the bewildered foreign language teacher in taking stock of past failures and achievements; to guide him through the labyrinth of methods and curricular aims proposed since the Tower of Babel brought the language problem into this world. The foreign language class, as it actually is, represents a residue and mosaic of past theory and practice. Knowingly or not, the teacher applying the MIM-MEM method (mimicry to the point of memorizing) of the Army Specialized Training Program³ applies the standard method of the medieval Latin class; he is still in the middle-ages, when he goes in for reading early in his course, provided he makes the students read for understanding; yet, if he makes them read for appreciation of meaningful content he comes within the scope of aims outlined by the very recent Stanford Language Arts Investigation. If the teacher does not quite know where he wishes to get, he can hardly blame his students for not getting anywhere, and the present article only aims at putting up a few signposts that seemed significant to the author in his attempts to tackle the problem, within the classroom and outside it.

Speaking modern foreign languages became a desirable achievement in Europe as late as the eighteenth century. It was then that they became extra fads and frills in college in this country, and it is significant to this day that they were the first wedge to be driven into the rigid nonelective curriculum. With the development of the German philological method, modern foreign languages made headway in American colleges since 1825. On the secondary-school level, they sneaked into the curriculum of the Academy, then, early in the nineteenth century, of schools in the Eastern states. But their heyday dawned in 1875, when the colleges substituted modern languages for Greek in their entrance requirements. Between 1890 and 1910, modern languages registered the highest increase in enrollment of all subjects. It was an unhealthy growth, for having hitched the wagon of their fortunes to college requirements, foreign language classes were bound to see their star sink with the influx of students who were not college bound, and with relaxed college entrance requirements.

As time went on, there were significant changes in the curriculum—in

³ *A Survey of Language Classes in the A.S.T.P.* New York: Commission on Trends in Educ. of the Mod. Lang. Assoc. of Amer. 1944.

aims, content and methods. Such changes invariably cluster around certain dates: the dates of authoritative reports by investigation committees. As new elements were often added to courses without obsolete ones being discarded, the average course became the eclectic mosaic it is today. Nevertheless, these dates provide milestones of development in dividing the period from 1875 to the present day into various phases:

EARLY CURRICULA

Up to 1898, the modern language curriculum was moulded on the familiar pattern of the Latin class as given in Europe's secondary schools. It constituted a logically graded course of grammar, proceeding from the article to the noun, pronoun, adjective, and verb, and from morphology to syntax, with drill sentences accompanying the study of rules and mechanizing their application. By the time the student was ready to be started on reading, he left the course. This scheme is far from dead and discarded. As late as 1939, a certain school was blessed with a "Course of Study" for French, which represented the nineteenth century scheme with some modern trimmings. The preface referred to the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education, promising that the study of French would contribute to a worthy use of leisure time if the student was "able to interpret the French found on menu cards" (sic!), and to the formation of character if the pupil learned to imitate the qualities of thrift and courtesy of the French people (evidently, by learning to hate their irregular verbs). The aim of the course was to teach the pupil to speak, understand, write and read the French language, with a knowledge of French geography, history, and civilization together with an appreciation of France's contributions to world civilization thrown in to make sure that the two-years course was filled well to the brim. Sure enough, old Labiche and Dumas figured on the reading list.

Though the Seven Cardinal Principles figure on the first page, following pages bare witness that the nineteenth century was the legitimate father of this 1939 scheme. Methods were based on the program, not on the pupils' needs; tests were focussed exclusively on the students' knowledge of grammar and their ability to apply them. Practically every word the teacher pronounced was laid down in the syllabus lesson for lesson, together with plenty of ingenious drill sentences such as: "These books are larger than those, but the former are more difficult than the latter."

THE COMMITTEE OF TWELVE

The second phase opens with the recommendations of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association in 1898, which stressed

the reading of graded texts hand in hand with the teaching of grammar essentials, adding, under the influence of the direct method, oral work "in longer courses." Up to 1913, the growing importance of direct-method oral work remained the most significant factor.

COMMISSION ON REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In 1913, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education recognized the basic problem of freeing the language class from the the fetters of college preparation, and defined three aims common to all students, whether college-bound or not, insofar as they were enrolled in foreign language classes: (a) training in phonetic accuracy; (b) training in the careful use of words, with a view to a transfer of abilities to the use of English; and (c) development of the students' interest in the foreign nation whose language they study. The commission advocated a three-year course, with a fourth year for the more successful students, to be devoted to a more careful study of grammar and of problems of style, and to individual reading.

The ideal course, typical for this period, is outlined in the Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. It proceeds logically from pronunciation drill and direct-method oral practice, accompanied by the study of grammar, though not too early in the course, to intensive reading, composition, and translation.

With this scheme, theory reached the highest organization it could reach without throwing overboard the old premises. What was then ideal theory is still the prevalent practice in most schools in this country. One of its shortcomings was, and is, that this four-year course is being offered to students, the majority of whom drop out after two years.

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY

The monumental Modern Foreign Language Study, 1927-1931, brought the first radical attempt to reorganize foreign language classes from top to bottom by proposing new aims, a new content, and new methods. Reading as the central, though not exclusive, aim became a goal attainable also for the two-year student. The Study, through a critical and systematic survey of intensive and extensive reading methods, of tests and prognosis tests, of the problem of word idiom, and grammatical frequency lists, and of Kulurkunde teaching, gave impetus to experiments in all these fields, led to a useful limitation in aims, and helped to streamline courses.

Yet, it is surprising how little influence the Study had on the practice of teaching. There are three causes for the failure of schools and teachers to put the findings of the Study to good use: (a) reading in the initial

stages of a course requires real pedagogical mastery on the part of a teacher who, himself, learnt the language by other methods; (b) teachers tried to rejuvenate obsolete courses by "enriching" them with whatever caught their fancy in the recommendations of the Study, thereby defeating its very purpose of complete reorganization; (c) the Study failed to define the exact connotation of the term "reading"—which may mean reading for understanding, reading for esthetic appreciation, reading for assimilation of meaningful content, reading for grammatical practice, and many others.

The 1931 *Syllabus of Minima* of the New York City Board of Education is a good example of a course making intelligent use of the Study recommendations. It states that "the chief aim shall be to develop to the point of enjoyment the ability to read the foreign language" through direct comprehension. It advocates more hearing and reading than talking and writing (especially for the first two years), limits translation, includes an accurate pronunciation and Kulturkunde, but subordinates grammatical knowledge to skill in comprehension as a mere tool. In its progression from intensive to extensive reading, supplemented by the reading of significant English reading, in its use of such devices as *realia*, and in its wise limitation to passive knowledge, the *Syllabus of Minima* was admirably consistent. It certainly is not the last word in the field of language teaching, but how many of even the best classes have ever gone beyond it in "developing a sense of pleasurable achievement" in the pupil, or in testing him on what he was supposed to learn in his course,—in the case of the *Syllabus of Minima* on his speed of silent reading.

STANFORD LANGUAGE ARTS INVESTIGATION

Since 1937, the Stanford Language Arts Investigation has brought new aims and methods to the fore by trying to justify the foreign language course within the framework of a general education for all American youth, and instilling new meaning into it. While following the Foreign Language Study in its advocacy of first intensive and then extensive reading, uniform and individual, in the vernacular and in the foreign language, the new plan stresses not only meaningful, but socially significant content. It sets up the new aim of furthering the understanding and appreciation of "American civilization as an integral part of present and past world civilizations" through foreign language classes. It goes back to the basic distinction made in 1913 between college preparatory language courses and those for students who are not college bound, by advocating a social language course for all, followed up by differentiated instruction for those who are sufficiently interested or college bound.

The most prominent protagonist of this school is W. V. Kaulfers.⁴ He and Peter Hagboldt,⁵ who represents the Foreign Language Study phase of development, constitute the two most powerful single forces of influence wherever a teacher of foreign language in this country now tries to justify his right to a salary by more than his purely personal need to earn a living.

A NEW SCHOOL OF THOUGHT

A new school of thought seems to be in the making, but it is yet too early to say what its practical achievements will be. It is typified by such publications as the Harvard Report or Huse's recent book,⁶ both published in 1945.

Following up the trend of thought of what we may call the Stanford School, which wishes to give a wide social meaning to foreign language study, without making it compulsory, the new school takes that final step too. It hardly suggests any new methods or content, and endorses such concepts of old standing as the direct method, and grammatical drill for mental discipline, long thought obsolete, on the one hand, and rather recent requirements as meaningful Kulturkunde and cultural material on the other. The originality of the new proposals lies elsewhere: the study of foreign languages is to become part of the general education of American youth. The Harvard Report suggests that "its results should appear primarily in a student's English, not in his grasp of the new language," while the elect few only, without whom society would slip into "insularity", and who find languages to be the "key to the humanities", would proceed to study literary and cultural values, and later go in for specialized study for vocational purposes on the college level.

The justification for including foreign languages in the broad field of general education is seen in their value as tools for teaching the "Copernican step", the semantic approach to the problem of speech and thought. This re-issue of the mental-discipline argument was undoubtedly prompted by studies like Stuart Chase's *The Tyranny of Words*, C.K. Ogden's *The Meaning of Meaning*, A. Korzybski's *Science and Sanity*, and H.R. Huse's *The Illiteracy of the Literate*.

Looking back on our survey of trends in foreign language teaching in this country, we can distinguish three great stages:

⁴ Kaulfers, W. V. *Modern Languages for Modern Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill. 1942.

⁵ Hagboldt, Peter. *Language Learning*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 1935. See also other publications by the same author.

⁶ Huse, H. R. *Reading and Speaking Foreign Languages*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press. 1945.

1. Up to 1927, the Logical Approach. Courses were built along lines suggested by a formal grammatical analysis of language, mental discipline remained the purpose of all courses, whatever the outward trimmings, and methods were subordinate to this purpose.

2. From 1927 to 1937, the Psychological Approach. The mechanism of language learning being studied, meaningful content and scientific methods came to the fore, while the actual purpose was lost sight of.

3. Since 1937, the Sociological Approach. Content tends to become socially significant, teachers make use of the great advances made in methodology during the preceding stage, and, most important of all, experts try to re-evaluate foreign language study and to ascertain its role in the curriculum.

CONCLUSION

As said before, too many courses of study and teachers combine heterogeneous elements of different schemes into seemingly new plans, going on the principle that, mustard being delicious and apple pie wonderful, apple pie with mustard must be a treat. Language teachers occasionally belittle the importance of careful planning by saying that all roads will lead to Rome. That is quite true, but the traveller should not be surprised if, instead of getting to the Eternal City, he finds himself in Rome, Wisconsin, or in Rome, Pennsylvania, or in Rome, Oregon. First of all, we must make up our mind where we wish to go: we must define the aims of the course,—and aims that were valid back in 1898 are no longer valid now. Once the aim is determined, content and methods may be decided upon by consistent logical deduction. Last, but not least, we must not expect the pupil to learn things we do not teach him. If we teach him grammar, he will not learn to speak, and if we teach him how to speak, he will not learn how to read. So, let us be fair, and test the student on whatever we tried to teach him.

The ultimate fate of foreign language teaching in this country is certainly an important one, but while the foreign language teacher waits for triumph or doom to be decided by the curriculum makers, he may well do his best, for the time being, to make the existing course as good and as useful as possible, and thereby serve his future interest best.

There has been some talk of six-year courses for New York. As things stand at present, this might only mean that, in some schools, pupils waste six years instead of two. Let the teacher take stock of the resources at his disposal, so that he is ready for the occasion—should it ever arise. Since the so-called foreign language controversy started, foreign language teachers have perhaps been looking ahead too often. Let them look back and around.

A New-Fashioned Spelldown

LOUISE EDNA GOEDEN

THESE days it's an old-fashioned spelldown with a new-fashioned twist at Washington High School, Milwaukee! All 1950 students are pitted against each other in a contest to choose the top-ranking spellers of the school. And the competition takes on the zip of a regular athletic event. The new idea came about when the faculty grew tired of the constant reiterations of businessmen that high-school graduates no longer can spell. The principal, Arlie Scharf, worked out a new type of spelling contest which would give every pupil a chance to compete.

Because spelling is completely a written exercise, no attempt at the old-fashioned oral spelldown was made. Instead, one morning in every home-room, one hundred short words used daily in speech and writing were dictated by the counselors. But the words were the hundred most often misspelled—the hundred demons—and included such tricky ones as “lying,” “description,” “receive,” and “accommodate.” They were truly demons! In order to qualify for the second round of the spelling contest, pupils had to spell correctly at least 95 of the words. Only forty-five students made the grade. And in a scientific breakdown of figures for the entire school, it was discovered that the school median was seventy-two, with the seniors writing, on the average, seventy-seven correctly, and sophomores, sixty-two (Washington High School has no freshmen).

In the second round, more difficult words were used: “architecture,” “sergeant,” “whether,” and “changeable.” Thirty-five students failed to pass this test. In round three, nine students tried their pen on such intricate words as “baptized,” “facilitate,” “misspell,” and “prairie.” All words used, it should be noted, were contributed by the faculty, who had found them

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misspelled in classroom tests and homework. From this stiff test, two girls emerged as victors. By that time, the entire student body was spelling conscious. As Principal Schardt said, "The incentive was a life situation: Competition."

Naturally, then, the final contest between the top two students had to be held before the entire school. In the middle of the stage stood a large blackboard. *Behind* this sat the two top spellers, each with her own messenger. From a basket containing a number of cards, each with a word typed on it, the head of the English department selected one card, pronounced the word thereon, and then handed the card to the student who had come in third in the contest. This student printed the word on the blackboard so that the entire audience—except the two contestants—could see how it was spelled.

The hum of excitement that rose each time a word was pronounced, the expectancy as it was printed on the board testified that a spelling contest could prove as exciting as an athletic event. Meanwhile each of the contestants had spelled the word on a card which the messengers had then taken to the judge, another English teacher. Twenty words were pronounced. And these were really difficult: "inveigle," "vicissitudes," and "reminiscence."

Then came the moment of decision—and there was no doubt of the feeling of competition the new-fashioned spelldown could inspire! Students sat up eagerly to wait the result. Of the twenty words, Jacqueline Bathey, a senior, had spelled seventeen correctly; Phyllis Engel, a sophomore, fifteen. So Jacqueline was named queen of the Washington High School Spellers, and Phyllis, runner-up.

Each received a medal with a raised facsimile of a dictionary and the letter WHS. And—to encourage the girls in their spelling prowess—each received a large modern dictionary. Last year, a similar spelling contest was held.

Education and the Next Decade

E *DUPLICATION and the Next Decade* is the title of the 1949 report of the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers appearing in the *NEA Journal*. It deals with the conditions which the American people will face in the years ahead in providing good schools for all children. The problems of increasing enrollments, teacher supply and preparation, salaries, school buildings, quality and cost of education are spotlighted. Matters of prime importance in meeting these problems, according to the report, include recruitment, local and state finance, district organization, and Federal aid.

Do They Pay What They Cost?

KATHARINE DRESDEN

IT is an axiom that better teaching can be secured only at the cost of increased effort, and usually, increased expense. When thirty-six teachers in fifteen high schools banded themselves together in the California Council on Improvement of Instruction (CCII), their principals immediately asked, "What is this going to cost us and what is it going to cost the taxpayers?" But they were willing to be convinced. The first activity of the group was to study the use of current materials. What constitutes current material? What is their place in the classroom? How can they best be used?

The complete story of the project is told in *Better Teaching Through the Use of Current Materials*.¹ Here we read how these teachers voluntarily set out to find new techniques and to refine old ones that might be suitable for the new classroom materials they were to use. The blackboard was given new significance, the bulletin board was emphasized, discussion techniques were refined so that texts might be supplemented with periodicals and pamphlets, movies and recordings became an integral part of classroom instruction, classes went out on field trips and community experts came into the classroom. Assignment-recitation-test method was supplemented by panels, round-tables, pupil-planned presentation, informal conversation.

"What assurance have we that this is not just entertainment?" Let us say, first, that the issue cannot be answered in the abstract; it cannot be pre-conceived and written down or put in a graph. The principals of these fifteen schools, not only gave the go-ahead signal to their teachers and gave them their active support, but asked for evidence as to the effectiveness of procedures.

The Kearny Junior-Senior High School in San Diego, East Bakersfield

¹ Reginald Bell and Lucien Kinney. *Better Teaching Through the Use of Current Materials*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press. 1947.

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High School, and Pittsburg High School set up control classes in neighboring communities. The classes were compared as to age, I.Q.'s, reading levels. Standardized tests were administered at the beginning and at the end of the year. In every instance, the experimental classes did as well; in some instances, better than the control classes. In addition, the experimental classes invariably made a better showing on the *Time Current Affairs Test* than did the control classes where current materials may have entered somewhat but were never an integral part of the course.

For the more important outcomes of the project, those that do not lend themselves to statistics, it was necessary to use the more modern procedures of evaluation to collect the required evidence. The teachers, all of whom were experienced and so had a basis against which to judge, were encouraged to keep anecdotal accounts and to summarize their opinions. Invariably, they noted in their pupils growth in the ability to make fine discriminations. That is, these boys and girls gradually became capable of differentiating between conservative and liberal, of recognizing weighed opinions or bias, of appreciating appeals to reason *versus* appeals to the emotions.

There was definite growth in ability to co-operate. Those, who were quick learners with natural ability in the field, developed a sense of their obligation to make a social contribution to the group rather than stand superior to it. The slower learners developed a sense of their obligation to contribute within their capacity rather than to retire within themselves or to become socially disruptive. Genuine leadership was definitely developed. Some became expert in leading discussion, some in directing manual activities, some in clerical detail, some in committee work, and a few became capable of leading a community activity for adults.

Teaching procedures suitable to textbooks could not be used without modification where current materials were used extensively. The simple assignment—so many pages required, so many activities to be checked—underwent serious modification for there could be no specific task and no ceiling. Boys and girls worked to master the problem or issue, to learn as much as possible. As a result, slow learners started where they were and progressed. Fast learners did not become lazy, inattentive, dreamy while the class drilled on what they had already mastered; they went ahead with other learnings and they developed the concomitants of learning by working with the slower pupils.

TEACHER CHANGES

But most pronounced was the enthusiasm of the teachers. Margaret LeSeur of San Francisco says, "My classes thrill me!" Lela Gillan of San Jose

says she could not possibly get the results she gets and give the realistic training she gives in citizenship without the use of current materials. Max Miller had not used current materials previously in his science classes in San Diego. Now he says he could not go back to his old routine which was as monotonous for him as it was uninspiring for his pupils. Grant Jensen claims he has never seen such results—hard work, mastery of facts, growth in leadership and critical thinking, wide reading—in any approach that he has achieved by approaching history from the current scene with current materials.

A most unexpected, but welcome, result of the project has been the improved teaching competence of the teachers themselves. Each, adept with the textbook, has added to his repertoire the motion picture, bulletin board, periodicals, and other current materials. Each has worked to develop special techniques for the use of these materials. Each has used these materials in developing the skills which they are peculiarly fitted to develop. Each has been increasingly conscious of the individual pupil and of the purposes for which he is being educated. Most important—not one of the teachers has “arrived”—they are still “going places!”

And the principal? He got the evidence he asked for. Think what he has to show the board in the way of tables, charts, and graphs of pupil growth. Think what the community is telling the board—enthusiastic parents, insatiable pupils, technical experts who have appeared before the classes, officials who have been visited on field trips, community meetings that have had pupil-led-programs. Why, Mr. Principal, you don't need to “sell” your board; your board will be demanding that you order more projectors, enlarge the library, put up more bulletin boards, add a filing cabinet to standard equipment for each classroom. Get on the beam, Mr. Principal, you don't want your board too far out ahead of you!

Travel Service Continues Bookings on Mexico Film

BOOKINGS for the film, *Modern Design for Travel—Mexico*, are now being made for the spring months by the NEA Division of Travel Service. The 20-minute sound-and-color film, produced by Paul H. Kinsel, Director of the Travel Division, is being used successfully for social studies classes, teachers meetings, PTA meetings, and for meetings of civic organizations. Film bookings may be made by writing to the division, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C.

Washington Superintendents Look At Guidance

ADRAIN GUILFORD and
MERLE OHLSEN

AND why are we interested in the superintendent's attitude toward guidance? That's easy. He is the professional leader for the whole school system. What he thinks, says, and does either helps or hurts the program. If the superintendent is really interested in the program, he will express himself through his acts as well as his words. It is *his active* interest in the program that encourages teachers to participate in it. Then it isn't a matter of forced participation—rather it becomes one of recognition for valuable personal contributions. After all, it's the teacher's day-to-day contact with youth that really counts; it will either support or defeat individual help.

Moreover, it is the superintendent who allocates funds for the program. You recognize that he might just think that something else is more important. One of our prominent superintendents from Central Washington, in talking to another superintendent, expressed himself as follows: "You can't afford to add these services for children, but you did recently buy a new school car and you did buy some new athletic equipment. It seems to me that it is a matter of deciding what counts most—it's a matter of human values." We believe it is our responsibility as guidance people to help the superintendent show the public how guidance services can be helpful to youth. We also want to caution guidance people not to sell their program over and beyond the service pupils actually receive. Individual consideration for the pupil is the thing that attracts the public attention. The real services given pupils speaks louder than any fancy words we might use in talking about the services.

INITIATING THE STUDY

Now let us turn back to the real reason for this study. We presented a

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representative sample of Washington superintendents with three specific questions:

1. What do you think are the essential guidance services?
2. Do you believe that guidance specialists should be employed?
3. If guidance specialists are employed, what do you think their training should be?

Note that we were attempting to get their general attitude toward guidance. Next, we studied the services they thought should be provided and then we enlisted their help in working out a training program.

A questionnaire was built around the three questions presented above. To ease the clerical burden, questions "1" and "3" were built into check-lists with space provided for additional listings. These check lists were built up out of a series of interviews with Washington superintendents and supplemented by recommended practices as defined in the guidance books published since 1940.

The participating superintendents were selected by taking the odd-numbered names from an alphabetical list of superintendents' names arranged by counties. One hundred twenty-five questionnaires were mailed in the first mailing. After three weeks, thirty-five questionnaires were mailed to even-numbered superintendents of schools of approximately the same size and the same counties. Ninety-eight superintendents actually returned questionnaires which were completely filled out. To the extent that school sizes and geographical location are the important controls in selecting a sample of schools are concerned, these ninety-eight schools appeared to be representative of the schools in the state.

ESSENTIAL GUIDANCE SERVICES

These ninety-eight superintendents were asked what they believed were the essential guidance services. Because we believed that guidance should be approached as a one-through-twelve problem, we asked the superintendents to put an "E" before every essential service for elementary-school children, an "H" before essential services for secondary-school pupils and a "B" before services which were essential at both levels. We were thinking in terms of an 8-4 plan. We thought that superintendents in different size school systems might see the problem differently. Hence, we broke down the analyses of these data into three school-size categories. The superintendents' definitions of essential guidance services are reported in Table I. The numbers in Table I are all percentages. We tried to break them into three groups with approximately the same number of superintendents in each. However, there was a

natural break down by school sizes which distributed the schools as follows: "S" (Small) 41, "A" (Average) 36, and "L" (Large) 21.

Table I. ESSENTIAL GUIDANCE SERVICE

Services	% Elementary			% High School			% Both		
	S.	A.	L.	S.	A.	L.	S.	A.	L.
Self-appraisal	2	3	—	44	58	43	42	33	43
Vocational Planning	2	—	—	81	86	75	15	8	14
Educational Planning	—	—	—	66	61	62	29	36	33
Choice of Subjects	5	—	—	78	83	72	7	8	19
Help with Study Skills	20	14	14	10	6	—	70	75	75
Extracurr. Planning	6	3	5	46	57	10	49	36	67
Remedial Instruction	27	25	24	—	11	—	66	61	72
Remedial Reading	37	33	24	—	—	—	56	58	72
Help with Hobbies	34	25	14	—	3	5	63	67	76
Give Vocational Infor.	7	3	—	73	79	81	17	17	14
Personal Problems	7	—	—	12	20	10	80	75	86
Social Responsibility	10	8	—	17	11	—	71	87	95
Self-education	15	11	5	17	20	19	64	68	71
Adapt to Group	19	17	19	—	—	—	81	81	76
Face Realities	10	8	5	20	3	—	66	83	86
Physical Exams	10	8	5	2	4	—	88	89	91
Dental Exams	5	11	10	—	—	—	95	86	86
Testing	7	3	—	5	—	—	66	79	86

It is quite apparent from Table I that school administrators in different size school districts have selected about the same essential services. However, the answer to question two indicates that the ability to provide specialists either to give these services or to help teachers give them is limited pretty much to the large-school districts.

The facts reported in Table I show that superintendents believe that most of these services should be given throughout the twelve-year program. These pupil problem areas touch nearly every phase of living. Naturally, the problem probably varies with the maturity of the pupil. Just the same, the individual still has questions and worries with which he wants and appreciates help.

Even though guidance services are all too frequently limited to the high school, it is interesting to consider the fact that superintendents believe that only five of these problem areas are peculiar to the high-school-age group: (1) vocational planning, (2) educational planning, (3) choice of subjects, (4) extracurricular activity planning, and (5) getting and using vocational

information. All five of these are associated with finding one's life work. As important as we believe this choice to be, we think that any superintendent would agree that it alone will not insure happiness for the individual and necessarily develop a productive citizen for society. Some of the other services affect the over-all school success. Hence, the pupil should have the help as early as possible. The rest of the services affect the development of the individual as a person. We know that the longer this help is postponed, the more fixed these personality patterns become. Hence, these services should also be provided as early as possible. After all, these personality traits are habits. The quicker you get at a bad habit, the easier it is to break it and the better your chances are for breaking it. Maybe, we should provide guidance services at the elementary level instead of the secondary level if a choice must be made.

GUIDANCE SPECIALISTS

Relative to the answer to question "2", it was pointed out above that Washington superintendents see the need for specialists but many of the small school districts cannot afford them even with the help the state provides for special services. At least, we can say that, if a choice is involved, they choose to use special services money for some one of the special services other than guidance.

First, we asked the superintendents to name any specialists which were employed. The response of ninety-eight school superintendents to this question is reviewed in Table II.

Table II. GUIDANCE SPECIALISTS

	<i>Small</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Large</i>
Remedial Reading	4	10	7
Boys and Girls Advisers		1	2
Visiting Teacher			3
Speech			4
Health		4	3
Counseling	1	15	13
Social Worker			1
Psychologists			2
Attendance		1	
None	36	16	1

Since no checklist was provided, some of the specialists may not have been named because the superintendent felt it was outside the guidance area. However, their definition of services in Table I makes this appear quite unlikely.

GUIDANCE CO-ORDINATOR

When these same superintendents were asked the question "Do you employ a guidance co-ordinator?" they replied as you find the data in Table III. This shows that many superintendents do not choose to put one person in charge of all personnel services. Failure to do this thing could result in many conflicts both between services and between services and teachers. It might also result in several agencies working with one pupil to the real disadvantage of the pupil. There are times when different approaches and contacts with different persons might confuse the pupil still further rather than help him.

Table III. NUMBER OF SCHOOLS EMPLOYING GUIDANCE CO-ORDINATORS

<i>Response</i>	<i>Small</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Large</i>
Yes	0	2	13
No	41	34	8

SPECIAL TRAINING

Then there is a possibility that all guidance services are not necessarily good for the pupil. Lack of training might be one of the problems. We have often heard teachers raise the question "Do superintendents really want trained personnel in guidance?" Hence, we took the question to the superintendents. To the question, "Should guidance specialists have any special training?" they all answered "yes." Some may think that maybe they want guidance people to have only one or two specialized courses. They are wrong again. Table IV lists the courses checked as basic by ninety-eight superintendents. It also reports the proportion of the group that believed each course to be basic.

First, it should be pointed out that a majority of these ninety-eight superintendents thought that all of the above courses were basic. Four superintendents out of every five from small systems believed that the following courses were pertinent: General Psychology, Psychology of Adolescence, Mental Hygiene, Theory and Methods of Counseling, Family Living, Psychology of Personality, Vocational Guidance, and Educational Guidance.

The same proportion of the superintendents from the average size school system thought that the above courses, except Family Living (72%), were basic. However, they did add three courses to the list: Mental Measurements, Individual Testing, and Child Psychology.

The superintendents in the large cities felt just about as the small town superintendents did except four out of five of them would add Child Psychology and Abnormal Psychology to the list. A few less would require

Table IV. PERTINENT COURSES FOR GUIDANCE SPECIALISTS

<i>Courses</i>	<i>Small %</i>	<i>Average %</i>	<i>Large %</i>
General Psychology	93	86	86
Psychology of Adolescence	85	86	95
Psychology of Motivation	61	67	43
Mental Hygiene	85	92	90
Mental Measurements	59	83	76
Individual Testing	78	81	67
Child Psychology	76	83	90
Statistics	37	61	19
Theories and Methods of Counseling	85	92	71
Family Living	81	72	71
Psychology of Personality	83	81	76
Abnormal Psychology	68	75	81
Educational Psychology	66	75	57
Vocational Guidance	96	86	81
Educational Guidance	83	86	86
Guidance Practice in Schools	57	67	67
Child Guidance	73	75	62
The Exceptional Child	68	75	67
School Administration	51	39	52
Juvenile Delinquency	78	70	67
Remedial Reading	66	67	48

the following: Counseling (71%), Family Living (71%), and Psychology of Personality (76%). In other words superintendents from all size schools thought that essentially the same academic experiences were important. They also indicated that a more thorough academic background would enable guidance workers to help teachers understand pupils more effectively.

At this point we refer to a companion study made by Goheen and Ohlesen.¹ We agree with them that academic training alone isn't the whole answer. First, the guidance man must have a personality that makes him acceptable to the students and his fellow teachers. Next, he should have at least two years of classroom experiences. Upon this foundation can be built an academic experience which will make the guidance man more useful to the schools.

School superintendents in Washington want trained guidance personnel. Yet Goheen and Ohlsen showed that the typical guidance worker employed in Washington had no better background in his specialized field than the

¹ See their article in this publication.

typical secondary-teacher training graduate from the five-year training program. This doesn't mean that the present situation is hopeless. Competent people are being trained now. Others on the job could and should be encouraged by their superintendents to get the professional training which would make them more useful to their schools.

We oppose special certificates for everyone at this time because we do not believe it would raise the standards. Such a plan would probably give certificates to everyone in these jobs now even though they may have had no specialized training. To overcome this problem, we recommend what we call permission certification. This would mean that we would have special certificate but that at first not everyone would either have them or be required to have them. An individual would get the special certificate when he had earned it. This would mean recognition for those who get the special training. What's more, we believe that superintendents would seek out these specially trained personnel for the good positions.

A BETTER TEACHER

School administrators will not carry out the principle of democratic leadership in education if they fail to give their parents a sense of dignity, self-respect and acceptance by school and community, it was urged yesterday at the December meeting of the committee on emotional stability of the Metropolitan School Study Council of Teachers College, Columbia University. The meeting was attended by 75 school superintendents, principals, supervisors, teachers, and boards of education from the metropolitan New York City area.

Teachers working with a feeling of dignity, self-respect, and acceptance will give more to their jobs and communities, the group declared. It was decided that teacher morale can be raised and kept high, professionally, if teachers get a feeling of "worth-while accomplishment" and of getting ahead on the job. Teachers need a feeling of being accepted and liked by the people they work with—administrators, other teachers, children, and parents. They must take part in school-planning meetings. At the end of the day and when the week is over, teachers should have energy and "zest" for personal life in the community. Teachers should not have to use all their strength in class. Teachers' pay should be raised so they can enjoy a professional standard of living. Other things that will make teachers happier, the committee stated, are opportunities for further education to meet better-job requirements, and opportunity for consultation with supervisors and skilled personnel workers.

The Guidance Worker's Job and His Preparation

PHILIP GOHEEN and
MERLE OHLSEN

LAST spring the idea occurred to us that we should try to find out what Washington people in the field of guidance are actually doing. We had two different reasons for wanting to know. Phil wanted ideas for improving his own school program while Merle wanted ideas for working out a better college training program to prepare these folks for their job. After we knew what these folks were actually doing, we decided we should know what their background was for doing these jobs. Both of these questions were answered very frankly and accurately by professional workers who were willing to stand off at a distance and look at their jobs critically.

To obtain these data, two questionnaires were prepared. The first one was designed to get the facts on actual services rendered. In addition to specific suggestions to the guidance worker for analyzing his job, it contained six open-end questions which were broad enough to cover all phases of his work. The second questionnaire was mailed to the superintendents. Each superintendent was given specific suggestions for using the multiple-choice questionnaire on training background. The following steps were taken in selecting the sample:

1. A complete alphabetical list of the names of guidance workers was made from the 1947-1948 Washington Educational Directory.
2. The first questionnaire was mailed to every other name on the list. If a questionnaire was not returned, another was mailed to a person from a school of the same size and same part of the state. There were seventy-seven returns, which proved to be representative of the schools of the state.
3. The second questionnaire was distributed in exactly the same manner.

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4. About twenty per cent of the second questionnaires were checked against actual transcripts. The reports checked were accurate in every case.
5. A companion study was done by Guilford and Ohlsen with superintendents. Their report on services indicated that the guidance men's reports were accurate for the state-wide picture. We did not make any attempt to identify the individual. Hence, we could not check the validity of individual reports. The direction stressed the need for frankness. We believe they were frank.

TIME DEVOTED TO GUIDANCE

First, let us consider how much time the participants in this study devoted to guidance. The typical person spent about three periods out of a six-period day in guidance. Approximately one in five spent full time in guidance while as few as one in ten spent one period or less. The rest of their time was spent in teaching, supervising study halls, and as an adviser to some extracurricular activity. About one third of this group had no teaching responsibility while one sixth taught four or more classes. There was slightly better than a fifty-fifty chance that the individual worker would have had a study hall. At least one of these guidance workers served as an adviser to one of twenty different activities. However, he was most apt to serve as adviser to a girl's club, a class, or some athletic group. It was significant that their duties outside of guidance did not include responsibility for discipline. We think that this is significant. It is difficult for students to trust a counselor with problems if the counselor is in the position where he may have to change his role to that of either the judge or the prosecuting attorney.

Table I. THE MOST IMPORTANT SERVICES PROVIDED

<i>Service</i>	<i>Number Reporting</i>	<i>Per cent of group</i>
Individual conferences	18	23
Making adjustments to school life	17	22
Help with course programs	14	19
Testing	6	8
Advising students	5	7
Counseling failing students	5	7
Faculty committee organization	4	5
Vocational guidance	4	5
Home visits	2	2
Attendance	2	2
TOTALS	77	100

MOST IMPORTANT DUTIES

When these guidance workers were confronted with the question "What do you consider your most important guidance service?" they told the story that is reported in Table I.

The facts in Table I can really be summarized into five categories of service: (1) counseling, (2) testing, (3) work with staff, (4) home visits, and (5) attendance. Counseling about a variety of problems certainly holds the key place in this list of "most important service." These workers provided other guidance services. The frequency with which these services are provided is shown in Table II.

Table II. OTHER GUIDANCE SERVICES PROVIDED

<i>Services Considered</i>	<i>Number Reporting</i>	<i>Per Cent of Group</i>
Records	14	19
In-service training for teachers	10	14
Job placement	9	13
Parent counseling	8	10
Special cases	8	10
Social activities	6	8
Orientation	5	7
Remedial reading	5	7
Career day	2	2
General adviser	2	2
How to study	2	2
Sex education	2	2
Group conference	1	1
Humanize school practices	1	1
Bus monitor	1	1
Follow-up of students leaving school	1	1
TOTALS	77	100

Even though we hear a lot about tests and records in guidance courses, we note that services outweigh records in both tables. However, Table II does show that record keeping is an important responsibility. The services fall into the following order: (1) records, (2) work with teachers, (3) placement, (4) counseling, and (5) work with parents.

A study similar to this one was done in the Minneapolis school system during the school year 1944-1945 by Wright.¹ This appraisal of counseling and guidance services revealed that guidance personnel have the following responsibilities:

¹ Wright, Barbara H. "Minneapolis School Counselors Analyze Their Job." *The Vocational Guidance Journal*. January, 1946, p. 217.

1. Teaches one or two classes and may have a home room.
2. Handle special assignments, such as adviser to group.
3. Supervise orientation of new pupils.
4. Advise pupils regarding choice of electives.
5. Advise pupils regarding transfers.
6. Supervise testing program.
7. Check credits for graduation.
8. Advise boys entering military service.
9. Interview and counsel failing pupils.
10. Handle part-time employment of pupils.
11. Arrange for group conferences.
12. Confer with pupils.
13. Confer with teachers regarding pupils with particular problems.
14. Do clerical work involved in services mentioned above.

As significant as it is to give individual help to pupils, it is a bit disappointing that neither of these studies found guidance workers spending much time with teachers. Teachers are the heart of any effective guidance program. Time spent with teachers multiplies the guidance services for pupils and stimulates the professional growth of teachers. The trained guidance leader must be the teacher's servant as well as the pupil's helper. He should be looked upon as someone specially trained to help teachers understand pupils.

COURSES TAKEN BY GUIDANCE WORKERS

The last statement in the previous paragraph opens up this whole problem of training. Sixty-nine superintendents were presented with a multiple-choice questionnaire and fifty-eight of them returned the complete information on the staff employed in their school. So far as straight academic training can tell the story, it is told in Table III.

An analysis of the individual reports making up Table III indicates that the typical guidance worker in this group has had the following course pattern: (1) General Psychology, (2) Educational Psychology, (3) General Sociology, (4) Educational Guidance, and (5) either Educational Measurements or Mental Measurements. In other words, he has about the same amount of academic work in the field as the student who is getting his five-year secondary certificate in Washington today. Let us look at a few examples. Only one in ten has had any special work in counseling techniques yet, according to his own job analysis, it is one of his most important services. Tables I and II indicate that many help with educational problems, yet less than half of them have had educational guidance.

Table III. THE TRAINING OF GUIDANCE PERSONNEL

<i>Courses</i>	<i>Number Taking Course</i>	<i>Per Cent of Respondents Taking Courses</i>
Educational Psychology	28	49
General Psychology	28	49
General Sociology	25	43
Educational Guidance	23	40
Educational Measurements	20	34
Vocational Guidance	20	34
Adolescent Psychology	17	29
Mental Hygiene	16	28
Mental Measurements	16	28
Introduction to Guidance	14	24
Child Psychology	13	22
Remedial Reading	13	22
Statistics	13	22
Curriculum	10	17
Supervision	10	17
Individual Testing	8	14
Counseling	6	10
Marriage and Family	6	10
Reading Techniques	6	10
Abnormal Psychology	5	9
Juvenile Delinquency	4	7
No Special Course	4	7
Clinical Psychology	3	5
Criminology	3	5
Exceptional Child	3	5
Group Behavior	3	5
Binet Testing	1	2
TOTALS	330	—

Now let us look at the other side. Many of these people were teachers whose pupils sought out for help. They have not had a chance to get real supervised practice courses. They have worked at the job of educating themselves. They have all had teaching experience which contributes to their understanding of pupils. On the other hand, some special courses are made available to these people now. Again, a special course involving supervised practice should certainly improve their services. Fellow teachers must feel that specialists can give help before they will seek the help of the specialist.

Some states have attacked this problem through special certification. Special certificates alone would not be the answer. Not every one who has

had the right courses can do the job. First, we need someone who is personally acceptable to pupils and teachers. Next, this someone must have teaching experience to enrich his understanding of the teaching situation. Special training built upon this foundation would certainly be productive. We believe that the teacher-training institutions should study the needs of school systems and then provide academic work as well as supervised practical experience to meet these needs through both extension work and summer school work. Probably permissive certification is the answer. It would involve giving special certificates to those who voluntarily get the training. At the same time, it would avoid the weakness of the "grandfather clause" which is in many certification laws.

Series of Training Films Help Teach Metal-Shop

A series of eleven discussional type slidefilms, "Safe Practices In Metal Working Engine Lathe," provides a total of 761 illuminated teaching pictures, to meet the needs of school-shop, trade-school, and industrial metal working organizations generally. They are designed for basic instruction and to aid the instructor—presenting engine-lathe operations with special emphasis on the safety factor.

Visualized treatment includes special photography, charts, drawings, and other pictorial exhibits with letterings and legends to amplify the pictured facts and procedures. Subjects included are: 1—Kinds, Parts, Safety. 2—Operating Speeds. 3—Carriage Tools, Feeds. 4—Turning Tools. 5—Chucks, Chucking. 6—Centers, Setting Tools, Facing. 7—Center Holes, Mounting Work, Facing Between Centers. 8—Turning Between Centers, Shouldering. 9—Recessing, Chamfering, Filing, Polishing, Knurling. 10—Taper Turning Threading. 11—Collets, Faceplates, Rests. For details, write to: The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit 11, Michigan.

January NEA Journal Contains Special Features

A SURVEY of departments of the National Education Association is featured in the January issue of the *NEA Journal*, providing a handy reference to the 29 different special units within the association. The four-page article gives officers, dues, publications, and services of the departments. Other features in the January *Journal* include: a four-page pictorial section on student-council activities; and articles on reciprocity and certification, classroom techniques and activities.

The Guidance Program in Colin Kelly Junior High School

LESTER M. BEALS

THE central theme of our philosophy has been to help adolescent youth meet the immediate problems of real life in a rapidly changing and uncertain world, and to emphasize the worth of each pupil and his development. Our guidance program centers around that theme. But the philosophy of Kelly has gone beyond that ideal of a pupil-centered school and an attempt to help boys and girls meet successfully their immediate real problems. We have tried to help youth see beyond their own needs to their responsibilities to others; to help them see that only as they are able to live co-operatively and democratically are they able to realize their own personal destiny; and to help them see that only as they contribute to the best of their ability to things greater than themselves and to other individuals do they achieve happiness and success for themselves. We feel that education must meet the challenge of a materialistic and uncertain world with a philosophy and program of unselfish co-operation and dynamic living or it has missed its mark.

Our guidance program rests on this general philosophy. In line with this philosophy, we have defined guidance as the process of assisting the individual to determine, analyze, and understand his interest, aptitudes, abilities, limitations, opportunities, problems, and needs and, in light of this knowledge, to make wise choices and adjustments in order that he may serve society and live more happily. It is a functioning part of the total school program rather than a separate service divorced from the curriculum. It is based on the following assumption:

1. A good guidance program is important and necessary because it provides a program of supplemental services to students.
2. It helps members of the staff to do more effective work in giving them more information about pupils through tests and records.

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3. There is a need for focusing attention on the individual, his needs and problems, and away from over-emphasis on subject matter.
4. Great social changes now taking place make it necessary for the individual to develop a more adequate philosophy. A good guidance program can help greatly in this development.
5. The recent war and resulting economic development helped to show the importance of personnel material. The armed services and industry both became more efficient by proper selection, placement, and personnel techniques.
6. The junior high-school student is in a peculiar developmental stage and has great need at this period for personal, educational, and vocational guidance.
7. There is no other institution that is in a position to give the vocational and personal guidance so essential in laying the basis for citizenship and service.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE FACULTY

The principal is in direct charge of the total guidance program. It is his responsibility to develop with the staff a guidance program that will meet the needs of the students represented in the school and to see that the program is carried out in line with the aims that are stated.

Colin Kelly Junior High School is a school of about 500 students, composed of some students from all strata of society, but predominantly average middle class, representing every type of background and pattern of social behavior. As director of the guidance program, the principal needs to keep these facts in mind. He also needs to focus the attention of the faculty on the individual student—his needs and problems.

The vice-principal functions in several ways in the guidance program. He is in charge of the attendance procedure for the school and the necessary pupil accounting. As such, he is able to secure information on the student's home and personal problems that is valuable as a basis for counseling and adjustment. In this, he works closely with the attendance officer for the entire school system and the school nurse. He also serves as boys' adviser, handling cases of boys referred by teachers for special counseling. We do not feel that counseling has to be, necessarily, separated from authoritative action, and that, therefore, the counselor should not handle any so-called disciplinary problems. We feel that it is the approach to the situation that is important and that, if we always keep in mind that our prime purpose is to help boys and girls, cases of discipline, including attendance, can be used as a basis for positive action and adjustment of personal problems. The vice-principal, as well as other

advisers, therefore, handles all types of problems. The only exceptions are cases where dismissal from school seems advisable, and, in such cases, the principal makes the final decision and conveys it to the student and parent. The vice-principal assists also in certain areas of scheduling, working with the principal. The schedule is secondary to the student's needs, and there is no hesitation in making schedule adjustments through the year when deemed necessary for the good of the student.

The librarian also functions as girls' adviser, a relationship that seems to work out very well. The position was established, however, by reason of training and background, not on the basis of the combination. The girls' adviser handles, for the most part, cases of girls referred for special counseling by other teachers, the principal, or vice-principal. Her contact with all the students through the library gives her an opportunity to discover students with special problems, some of whom have not been recognized otherwise. She assists in the testing program by administering the general intelligence tests to any new student for whom no test record is available. She occasionally makes a home call whenever it seems this may be helpful in the better understanding of a girl's problem. As librarian, she assists the core teachers in securing vocational and educational information for students. She works with all the teachers in providing orientation and training for students on the proper use of the library.

The core teachers are the center of the guidance organization. The core is termed social living and, from a curricular standpoint, a fusion of language arts and social studies with some science concepts. Our emphasis in social living, however, is on the student and his basic needs, and the curriculum content is focused in that direction. In the seventh and eighth grade, the core program consists of three periods of fifty minutes each, while, in the ninth grade, it is two periods. Parenthetically, it should be mentioned that some of our activities and clubs, such as 4-H, Rose Club, Landscaping Club, Forestry, etc., develop out of this core organization.

Insofar as guidance is one of the functions of the social living classes, it is here that the activities of the home room take place. Each group has a complete organization with representation in the student council and the various school organizations. In the fall, two weeks are spent on an orientation program that emphasizes the relationship of the individual student to the school. The student handbook provides a basis for the study.

The orientation program for new students starts in the spring when the principal and student leaders visit the various elementary schools to discuss with the prospective students the junior high-school program and to register

them. These groups then visit the school and are entertained by the Girls League and Boys Club. The fall orientation also includes a "Hello Week" to greet newcomers, a special assembly, and an all-school party in addition to the orientation carried on through social living classes.

The social living teachers keep the cumulative record folders that have originated in the first grade of our system. Tests are administered and evaluated by these teachers with the assistance of the principal and advisers. They come to know each student intimately since they are with them such a long period. In some cases, these teachers have progressed with their classes although this is not a universal practice. We feel that this has definite advantages inasmuch as one gets to know the student better and, as a result, is able to give him more assistance. The social living teacher is able to counsel individually with students when her classes are scheduled in the library, during free periods, and at other times. We are fortunate to have individual conference rooms, as a part of every social living room. Since social living classes are two and three periods in length and we operate a seven period day, which includes an activity period, we find it better to free these teachers at the time of the activity period for individual counseling. All areas of counseling, including educational, vocational and personal, are carried on by the social living teachers in addition to group guidance activities.

In order to understand a student and help him, it is vitally important to have a home contact. Early in the year, that is during the first two months, we make a home contact for every student where contact has not been made in previous years and seems advisable. In many cases, we ask the parent to come to the school for a conference. In some, we find it is more valuable for us to visit the home. These home contacts are made by the social living teachers or by the advisers who work closely with them. These home contacts, either of the conference or visitation type, are scheduled during free periods, after school, or on Saturday mornings. In addition to these regularly scheduled home contacts, we find it valuable to get in touch with parents whenever problems arise concerning their child.

The other classroom teachers have a part in developing the guidance program as it relates to school philosophy. Inasmuch as guidance is a part of the total educational process, all teachers have general responsibilities in making a contribution to the guidance program. In our program, the physical education and health teachers carry the responsibility of health guidance and social hygiene education. These teachers, working with the nurse, secure complete health records on every student through examinations and from medical and family records. This material is accumulated on a cumulative

health card begun in the first grade or whenever the student enters the school district. These same people follow to see that corrective measures are taken whenever necessary for the pupil's health. If the parents are unable to pay for such correction, it is taken care of through funds made available from private sources and administered through the school physician. Whenever necessary, health data is made available to all teachers through either the physical education teachers or through the nurse. A complete program of social hygiene education is carried on by the physical education teachers through health classes. This is a part of the regular health course of study developed by the health teachers of the state, the State Department of Education, and the University of Oregon.

The homemaking teacher also makes a special contribution to the guidance program in teaching units on home and family relations. She also works closely with social living teachers in providing special instruction for girls in matters of personal and home education.

The school nurse, available two days a week, works closely with the boys' and girls' advisers and the principal on health problems, as well as with the physical education teachers. She is responsible for securing a complete health record on every student as indicated. She assists in the remedial health work, working with the physical education teachers. Remedial work in posture and skin care are two things that have received a great deal of emphasis. The nurse also makes home calls whenever it is deemed necessary by the principal or vice-principal. These home calls are only made whenever illness is involved.

SPECIAL SERVICES

The last area of our guidance organization to be discussed are the special services. One of our social living teachers is a reading specialist. She works closely with the reading clinician for the school system in handling the remedial reading for our school. One period a day, the activity period, is set aside for remedial reading classes. Reading problems are diagnosed by the use of an Achievement Test administered every year to all students and through teacher observation. These students with reading problems are scheduled in the remedial reading groups where they receive instruction. If there is any question about their need, a special reading test is given or, in some cases, an individual *Binet Test of Intelligence*. Whenever there seems to be a physical reason for reading inability, the student is referred to the nurse for examination and follow-up. Information on reading disabilities of students is made available to all teachers and to the librarian so material may be provided on the student's reading level.

A speech teacher is available once a week for cases of students with speech disabilities. These are referred by any teacher for examination, and corrective work is carried on as it seems necessary.

A school psychologist is available to study special cases and make recommendations for handling. Through his office, twice a year, a child guidance clinic is held at which time psychiatrists from the Medical School consult with parents, teachers, and children concerning certain referred problems. Information on special cases studied by the clinic is always made available to teachers.

Counseling is not a mystic art that can only be performed by the select few. It is primarily the process whereby certain problems are discussed and action is pointed toward a possible solution. The basic characteristic of a good counselor is interest in other people coupled with a desire to help them. This does not mean that everyone with these characteristics makes a good counselor, for they may lack the natural technique or training to serve in this capacity. But no matter how fine the training, if they do not have this basic characteristic they will not be good counselors. In selecting our advisers and social living teachers, we select them with this characteristic first in mind. Other characteristics and training are also considered.

Social living teachers have at least two conferences with each student during the year. The purposes of these conferences are: (1) to assist individuals in interpreting data such as test scores, grades, personal records; (2) to assist individuals in identifying their major educational, vocational, and personal problems; (3) to assist individuals in planning a solution to their problems; and (4) to help them in carrying out these plans and to make modifications whenever necessary. We feel that the school needs to be concerned with every aspect of the pupil's life if we are going to help him be as happy and well adjusted as he possibly can be under the circumstances which he lives. We feel that the school has the responsibility of initiating action to help change the pupil's situation whenever it seems necessary and desirable from the standpoint of the pupil's happiness and life adjustment.

This involves, of course, close contact with the home and all community institutions and agencies. In addition to the general counseling carried on by social living teachers, the boys' adviser, girls' adviser, and principal are constantly engaged in counseling. They handle for the most part cases referred by the social living and other teachers. They have more time and training to handle cases requiring special study and time. In attempting to help individuals, every teacher in school is alerted and assists in whatever way possible. We believe, of course, that affection, recognition,

and responsibility are basic needs and are ones that the school can provide in great measure. We believe that adolescent pupils have particular needs in the areas of physical health, emotional and mental health, satisfactory sex attitudes, vocational growth, recreation, and especially in developing a philosophy of life satisfying to themselves and society. The counseling program should do a great deal in helping to meet these needs.

CUMULATIVE RECORDS

A guidance program should include a great deal of information about individuals by means of records, tests, personal interviews and parent conferences. These things supply information that is basic in understanding the individual. We use a cumulative record folder that is started in the first grade or whenever the individual enters our school system. This cumulative record folder contains essential data on social and economic background of the student, occupational and recreational experience, home and family statistics, experiences in responsibility and leadership, school grades, standard test records, physical and health information, and other significant information. These cumulative folders come to the school at the time school is out in the spring, from the schools who send sixth-grade students to our school. The boys' adviser and girls' adviser go through these very briefly before the beginning of school in the fall in order to discover any information that is important in schedule adjustment. Special reading groups are established on the basis of the achievement test scores and other information available in the folders. The folders are then distributed to the social living teachers according to their group personnel. The folders progress with the student throughout junior high school and into senior high school. Early in the year, the student completes a personal history which includes information on his interests, likes and dislikes, family relationships, *etc.*, and also writes an autobiography. These serve as a basis for one of the first interviews with a student. Whenever an adviser has a conference with a student in which important information is revealed, this is recorded on a card and later filed in the folder. Referral cards are provided each teacher so he may record important information that needs to be referred to the counselor. After a conference on the basis of the referral, the counselor makes a notation on the card and files it in the folder. All such information is filed in the folder, kept in social living rooms with the exception of the health cards which are kept by the nurse.

Some tests are given in the junior high school, but we think of them only as one part of the data secured on each student as a basis for understanding him better. A test of general intelligence is given only once, and that at the beginning of the seventh grade. In addition, this test is given to

all other new students early in the fall for whom no records are available. The test we are presently using is the *S.R.A. Primary Mental Abilities Test*. The *Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills* is given in the spring to all students to give us some evaluation of our work progress in relation to national norms. The *California Test of Personality* is given in the eighth grade to supply some standard data on the student's personal adjustment. In the ninth grade, the *Kuder Intent Inventory* is given as a part of the study of vocations. All of these test scores are recorded in the students' permanent records and the analysis sheet filed in the cumulative folders. Scores on the Achievement and Personality Test are discussed in the general faculty meetings and scores made available to all teachers. Remedial measures are planned as a result of these discussions. Test scores also serve as a basis for personal counseling and adjustment.

In addition to the cumulative record folder a permanent record is kept in the office. This consists of a folded sheet which includes a record of grades, activity record and achievements, test records, personal and family statistics, statement of health and physical defects, attendance record, comment on personality characteristics, and a picture of the student. This is also a cumulative form containing junior and senior high-school records.

A word might be said at this point concerning grade reports. Four times a year, we send out a report with each student to his parents which includes a so-called academic grade and statements concerning the individual's work habits and personal growth. This is supplemented by work reports, which may be either reports of unsatisfactory or outstanding work accomplished. These are sent out at irregular intervals whenever it is deemed necessary and valuable by the teacher. We feel that it is more important to notify students and parents of meritorious work and service than to inform them only when unsatisfactory work is done. The personal conference with parents affords an opportunity to discuss the pupil's growth.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

Another important phase of our guidance program is the dissemination of information on occupations associated with vocational guidance. It is agreed that satisfactory job placement is most important, both from the standpoint of the individual's happiness and success and also that of society. The junior high school is psychologically the place to begin a study of occupations and self-appraisal in relation to vocations. There should be extensive study made of the world of work and some experience if possible. As our school year is lengthened, and it will and should be, work experience programs will expand.

We have an occupations unit in ninth-grade social living which requires

nearly a third of a year. Students study, as a part of this, our economic system, and a great many occupations, especially those in the local area. Each student makes an intensive study of the two or three occupations in which he is especially interested and makes a report of this to his class. As a part of this, he has interviews with people in the occupation and, if it can be arranged, spends a day or so working with that person. Many people representing various occupations are brought into the classrooms to discuss their particular occupation. Many field excursions are taken to visit railroad shops, lumber mills, *etc.* The *Kuder Interest Inventory* is submitted to each student and the results tabulated. The student is then helped to evaluate the results.

We provide a limited number with work experiences through our school program. Students interested in office work spend a certain period of time working in the office or doing the office work for teachers. Boys and girls interested in physical education work serve as gym helpers. Those interested in being librarians or related occupations are assigned to the library for a period of time. Those, interested in sales work, clerk in the school store. The cafeteria offers experience in food handling. All of these experiences are provided as a part of the study of occupations in the ninth grade and credit is given for them. Students work at their various jobs throughout the year, not just at the time of the study of occupations, but the experiences are all arranged through the ninth-grade social living teachers as a part of the vocations unit. A great deal of material is always available in a certain section of the library on occupations, as well as that found in the classrooms. At the end of the study of vocations, the counselors from the senior high school come to the school and spend two or three days counseling with students concerning their senior high-school program and tentative schedules are made.

The vocational implication is stressed in other units studied in the school. For instance, in the seventh grade, units on forestry, agriculture, and fishing are studied, all of which are very important occupations in Oregon. The vocational importance is emphasized as a part of this. Likewise, air-age units in the eighth grade and a study of government at all levels in the ninth grade receive occupational emphasis. Since music, art, shop, home-making, science, and mathematics are a part of the junior high school program, the area they represent receives occupational emphasis. Our activity and club program which includes such things as 4-H, Landscaping, Rose Club, Forestry, Cooking, Photography, Drama, School Newspaper; *etc.* has vocational implication.

PLACEMENT AND FOLLOW-UP

The last aspect of our guidance program is that of placement and follow-up. In a junior high school, there needs to be little attention to placement since we promote rather than graduate. We do secure part-time jobs for some students when it seems necessary for economic or adjustment reasons. Occasionally, we arrange part-time programs for students whenever it is justified for the student's welfare.

Insofar as follow-up is concerned, we attempt to maintain contact with all those leaving school, both graduates and drop-outs, for a period of years in order that we may give them further aid and assistance if they deserve it. Since most of them have gone on to senior high school where a fine guidance program is in operation, it is the drop-outs whom we are in a better position to serve. We impress on all students who are leaving school at promotion time or who are dropping out that our services are always available to them. By further contact with the senior high schools after our students leave the ninth grade, we secure names of the students who have dropped. A letter is sent to them indicating that our services are still available to them, especially the guidance facilities, and inviting them to see us if they care to. A comprehensive follow-up service is made of all those students who go into the senior high schools in order that we can evaluate and improve our guidance program. This survey is made through the students and the guidance departments of the senior high schools. In addition to following up on general achievement, we try to discover how well the pupils are developing in basic personality traits and responding to responsibility. The survey supplies information that is used as a basis for improving our educational program, especially the guidance services.

Describing a guidance program on paper does not begin to tell the story. The intimate details of the lives of boys and girls who have benefited from the friendly spirit of counselor and teachers working in a well-organized guidance program gives, in actuality, the true picture. The school can exercise a profound positive influence on an adolescent's emerging personality. In many cases, we are the only friend that the pupil has—his only source of security and decency. Through adequate guidance, we can help him achieve his real destiny. Can we fail in this challenge?

Guidance in the Wilmington Public Schools

THOMAS W. MULROONEY

THE philosophy of education recently adopted as an introduction to the Report of the Educational Program Committee of the Self-Survey of the Wilmington Public Schools states, among other things, that: "The function of education is to build the character and personality of individuals so that they will achieve their own maximum development, will make their communities better places in which to live, and will contribute to the enrichment of society generally."

In keeping with the basic statement of philosophy, the general purpose of guidance services in our schools is to assist each youth to analyze and appraise his own abilities, aptitudes, and values so that, with the aid of all staff members and a suitable educational program, he may grow and develop to his maximum capacity in the light of his needs, interests, and long-time goals, becoming finally a mature, self-guided, desirable citizen of our democratic society.

Since the learning and the behavior of youth are caused, and the causes are not simple but multiple, complex, and inter-related, it is important for teachers and specialists working with children to understand all of the factors and processes that might facilitate or retard learning or might result in acceptable or undesirable behavior. Not only is each pupil unique, being different in many respects from all other pupils but also each pupil is an indivisible unit. Too frequently these basic facts are lost sight of. Some teachers attempt to guide a pupil educationally or vocationally with no consideration for his physical, mental, or emotional abilities or handicaps. Some physicians or nurses attempt to improve the physical health of the child, forgetting or overlooking the fact that his

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ambitions or goals or his feelings about his family or other emotional disturbances might have induced his illness. Some psychometricians might attempt to guide a child on the basis of test results only, with no study of the child's social or cultural background or other vital information.

Such attempts are doomed to failure, or at best, to partial success. Educational planning and practice and guidance services must take into consideration all the physical, emotional, mental, and social factors and processes in attempting to evoke specific learning and desired patterns of behavior in pupils because all these factors and processes are interrelated and interdependent.

It is important to stress, therefore, that the breakdown of guidance services which follows is not to be taken too literally. It has been made simply to show the kinds of services being offered and adjustments being tried by members of the school staffs. All the teachers are trying to help their pupils grow and develop, calling on specialists to assist them as needed and keeping in mind constantly "the whole child."

1. GUIDING TOWARD PHYSICAL HEALTH

Pupils are given physical examinations by the school physicians before entering kindergarten or first grade, and afterward, every second year in the odd number classes—first to eleventh included. These physical examinations make it possible for pupils to discover and utilize their physical assets, and enable them and their parents to become aware of physical handicaps and to encourage correction or ways to overcome them.

The physicians and nurses refer pupils, as necessary, to private physicians or dentists, to clinics, *etc.* The nurse and the dental hygienist assist the teacher to follow up the physical examinations and referrals, calling on the school dentist, clinics, service clubs, social agencies, and others to serve if thought desirable. Vaccinations and inoculations are administered yearly to those who are not already immunized against certain communicable diseases, at the parents' request, and chest X-rays are provided for all senior high-school pupils every two years.

In all elementary grades and in general science, biology, and physical education classes in the secondary schools, the pupils are taught good health attitudes and practices and are helped to discover and correct inconsistencies in their own health habits and information. The school cafeterias are set up to provide wholesome, nutritious, tasty meals at reasonable cost and pupils are helped by their teachers, particularly in primary grades, to choose food wisely. Teachers, especially on the elementary level, are trained to

observe their pupils carefully, to be constantly on the lookout for evidence among pupils of deviations from normal health, to be aware of symptoms, and to refer them to nurses or physicians whenever it is deemed advisable. The whole effort in the area is pointed toward the maintenance and improvement of the physical well-being of each child.

2. GUIDING TOWARD MENTAL HEALTH AND EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT

Stated in simplest terms, all children (all human beings) have basic needs which must be satisfied if they are to develop into mentally healthy and emotionally adjusted adults. Aside from food, clothing, and shelter, these needs are: (1) a sense of security, or a feeling that one is loved and wanted; (2) a sense of adequacy, or a feeling that one can accomplish the tasks required of one; (3) a sense of belonging to a group, or acceptance by one's associates; and (4) a sense of moral right, or a feeling that one's actions are in accord with reality, and with one's accepted value system.

Class teachers, visiting teachers, guidance staff, and school guidance committees are constantly trying to single out and study those pupils who show evidence of mental or emotional maladjustment. The kindergarten and first-grade teachers, many faculty groups (in school in-service programs) and many individual teachers have taken, or are taking, basic courses in child growth and development which enable them to recognize the expression in different pupils of these basic needs and make it possible for them to help their pupils as they try to satisfy these needs.

Home visits, parent conferences, and individual pupil study help to determine those pupils who lack a sense of security. Psychological examinations, tests, and individual study enable judgments to be made of ability to do assigned tasks. Sociometric techniques and observation make possible the detection of the "fringers," the "isolates," or the "rejected" pupils in any group. Teacher observations make it possible to discover those experiences and situations which create pleasant or unpleasant emotions in a pupil, how he acts when he is frustrated; how he reassures, comforts, or defends himself; whether his attitudes, values, and aspirations are consistent with each other and with reality.

The Wilmington educational program, and the procedures used in carrying it out, aims at developing mentally healthy and emotionally well-adjusted young people. More and more of the teachers are trained to observe their pupils, and when situations indicate potential maladjustments, they are able to call on the services of physicians, psychologists, the trained social worker, and other specialists in the school system to assist them in helping

to adjust pupils. These specialists, in turn, freely use the many services offered by the community whenever the need for such help is indicated; e.g., the Mental Hygiene Clinic (and much is hoped for from the new Governor Bacon Health Center), the Children's Bureau, Family Society, Family Court, hospital clinics, *etc.*

The most pressing problem in this whole area, and one that is being studied by several faculty groups, is how to satisfy the sense of adequacy of adolescents who belong to that large group called "slow-learners." How to adjust the school offerings so that these pupils are kept interested, retained in school, given work that stimulates and challenges them and for which they see meaning, without frustrating them by academic work beyond their ability—these are problems which, if solved, will do much for the mental health and emotional adjustment of youth. They tie in directly with educational and vocational guidance.

3. GUIDING TOWARD SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

Because of the vast social changes that have occurred within the past few score of years, resulting in masses of people living and working in close proximity to each other, and because of scientific and technological advances which have brought all peoples of the earth within a few hours or few days of each other, it is most important, today, that children be helped to appreciate the worth of others and learn the meaning of co-operation. We hear much these days of intercultural or interfaith education, courses in human relations, or in labor-management co-operation, *etc.* Actually, the teachers of every class are striving to develop in their pupils the ability to recognize and respect the value of all individuals, and the ability to co-operate with others in work and in play.

Starting in the kindergartens (which are now available to all Wilmington children), all teachers have as a primary objective, guiding children "to get along with others," to share planning, responsibilities, and experiences. The kindergarten and primary teachers are particularly concerned with the mental and physical health of their pupils and their social and emotional adjustment. The home visits made by them and the parent conferences help both pupils and parents to obtain a keener appreciation of the family as the essential unit in our democratic society. Also, parents and teachers are made partners in the task of assisting pupils to grow and develop.

There is a conscious attempt made by teachers (not sporadically or periodically, but continually) to develop learning experiences which will help attain these ends. Examples of such courses are those developed in

summer school and in in-service programs by the primary, junior high, and senior high teachers in the field of intercultural education. Likewise, the reading materials selected for the various language arts units, the better, broader approaches to the teaching of social studies, teaching the universality of science and scientific method—all these are conscious attempts to develop social understandings and adjustment.

The project methods used on all grade levels, the free and group recreational play, the team work developed in choral, instrumental, and dramatic groups, in athletic teams, *etc.*—all further these objectives. The co-operative program of the commercial course and the vocational school definitely train for "getting along with others" at work. In addition, the planned and the spontaneous social affairs, dances, parties, and clubs are all a part of our educational program, designed from kindergarten to twelfth grade to help youth develop an understanding of and an appreciation for all peoples. Particularly on the secondary level do these activities help the maturing adolescent adjust to his natural, growing interest in the opposite sex, deepen his feeling of civic responsibility, and help him develop an acceptable and desirable pattern of social and moral values.

4. GUIDING EDUCATIONALLY

The educational program is designed to discover, through careful observation, study, and tests, the innate capacities and aptitudes of the pupils. Then, consistent with their experience background and their rate of development and maturity, the program aims at helping them acquire knowledge and skills, broaden and strengthen their interests, build up attitudes and values that are socially and morally acceptable in our democratic society, and develop goals and aspirations consistent with reality.

More and more, it is important for our citizens to be able to think independently, to recognize, analyze, and solve problems, and to do so with an understanding of and an appreciation for the cultures of the past—both our own and that of all nations. Then, too, because of our national acceptance of a short work week, with a resulting increase in available leisure time for all people, our citizens must be assisted to build up interests of a physical, intellectual, esthetic, and spiritual nature which will enable them to use this increased leisure time with pleasure and profit to themselves and to society.

Therefore, the teachers, who are the instruments through which the educational program functions, plan learning experiences for their pupils which will attain these objectives and, at the same time, meet individual needs and potentialities. Elementary teachers are aided in setting up these learning

experiences by their knowledge of their children obtained from home visits, the new cumulative record cards, *etc.* They report the actual growth or development of their pupils to parents in parent conferences, and factual, descriptive reports, and they plan next steps, educationally, on past experiences, needs, and capacities. This background material on children, together with achievement, interest, and aptitude tests enables junior and senior high-school pupils to appraise their own needs and abilities and, with the help of teachers and guidance personnel, to plan subjects, courses, or schools.

Study of the self-developmental background of pupils also helps secondary teachers to adjust the learning experiences they set up so that they are in line with the potentialities of the pupils (whether they be slow-learning, average, or brilliant, physically handicapped or normal, socially or emotionally adjusted or maladjusted). The foundation stone of educational guidance is the home-room teacher, and the supporting columns are the visiting teachers, home visitors, sponsors, deans, and the staff of the Department of Child Development and Guidance. Throughout the social life of the child, from kindergarten to twelfth grade, guidance services operate to make possible the wise use of the educational program in the development of mature, self-guided, desirable citizens.

5. GUIDING VOCATIONALLY

Pupils on all grade levels are given experiences in school and visits throughout the community that help them gain knowledge of and form opinions about the world of work. Starting in the junior high school and carrying on through senior high, vocational information is given to groups, partly through subject class discussions, partly through discussions with counselors and business and professional people in class meetings and assembly programs, and, on the junior-high level, by actual guidance classes. The interest and aptitude tests now being given in junior high school help pupils to make an intelligent self-analysis of their vocational plans and enable sponsors to give them assistance in the selection of specific courses in senior high school or vocational school.

The individual counseling by deans, sponsors, and vocational counselor assist pupils to plan for further training and the Delaware State Employment Service Tests, administered by the staff of that office, help sponsors, vocational counselor, and employment people guide pupils into productive work upon or before graduation. In addition, the training and placement of commercial and vocational pupils is an important guidance function of the Wilmington schools.

The success of the students who go on to college indicates that, in the main, they have been given wise guidance. The large number of satisfactory placements of commercial and vocational students indicates that, on the whole, these programs are meeting their objectives. That sizable group of pupils now in the high schools who are not going to take further training (in college, training school, or business college) or who are not going to (or not suited to) take specific vocationally-aimed courses will find themselves mostly in unskilled, sales, or semi-skilled jobs after leaving school. With the use of the DSES tests, with individual study and guidance by sponsors or deans, and with additional modified senior high-school courses, it is hoped that, gradually, the schools will be able to meet the vocational needs of this group.

As every member of the school personnel becomes interested in studying the needs of individual children, and as they accept the schools educational philosophy, more and more of them will utilize to the fullest possible extent the guidance services offered by the schools and by the Child Development and Guidance staff to meet the needs of their pupils—physically, mentally, emotionally, socially, educationally, and vocationally.

Tenure Committee Makes Recommendations After "Non-professional" Dismissal

"1. One of the most serious aspects of the board's action against the teachers was that it was taken contrary to the recommendations of the superintendent of schools. The National Education Association has pointed out in numerous reports that it is administratively unsound to permit a board of education to summarily reject the superintendent's recommendations without any specific reasons and proof of incompetency on the part of the person to be dismissed. Such practice usually engenders suspicion that a board, or certain members thereof, is acting out of personal or political motives and not on a basis of professional competence. It tends to lower the prestige and standing of the superintendent as the professional head of the school system and often leads to the demoralizing practice of teachers endeavoring to use personal influence on individual board members. It is urged, therefore, that the Highlands County trustees through by-law or through announced official policy follow the practice of making appointments only upon recommendation of the superintendent of schools, and, where the board rejects a recommendation, that it accompany such rejection by a statement giving the specific grounds therefor.

"2. The people of Highlands County should seriously consider correcting the duplication of responsibility for the schools that exists under the present system of a county board of trustees and a county board of public instruction. The latter board is the policy-forming body for the school system, but must operate under a statute whereby those charged with carrying out its policies are selected by another board—the trustees.

"3. There is only one ultimate remedy for improper school-board practices—that is a well-informed and participating electorate. Every voting citizen and school patron should take a continuing interest in the operation and welfare of his school system."

A Guidance Device to Give Students Life-Perspective

DONALD G. ZIEGLER

IT is probably true more frequently than not, that the high-school student, who has made up his mind to get out of school permanently, does not think of himself and his life in perspective. He sees himself and what he wants only as he lives from day to day. Today he is where he does not want to be. Tomorrow, he wants to be out of school, perhaps on a job. He does not think of himself beyond tomorrow. He does not think of himself as possessing a life span. He has no life perspective. It was with this fact in mind that the guidance device here described was created by the attendance department of the Isaac E. Young High School. (See illustration.)

The device consists of a life line with calibrations from 0-70, birth to normal life expectancy. A descriptive title below attempts to create the idea in the student's mind that, for most people who have gone before him and who live during his time, certain general things happen during their lifetime. The attempt is to make him feel that, although he has identity with most people in what happens to him during his life, yet this guidance device is something of a prediction of what will happen to him; a crystal ball, if you please.

When a student is found who either states or shows by his actions that he wants to quit school, the attendance worker in the school sits down with the student and fills out one of these forms with him. The conversation usually starts out with the question: "What important event took place in your life at the age of six that also took place in the lives of others, including me?" The answer, "started school," is the most obvious one of which the student could be led to think. This event is then interpreted to him as being the beginning of his period of fundamental training.

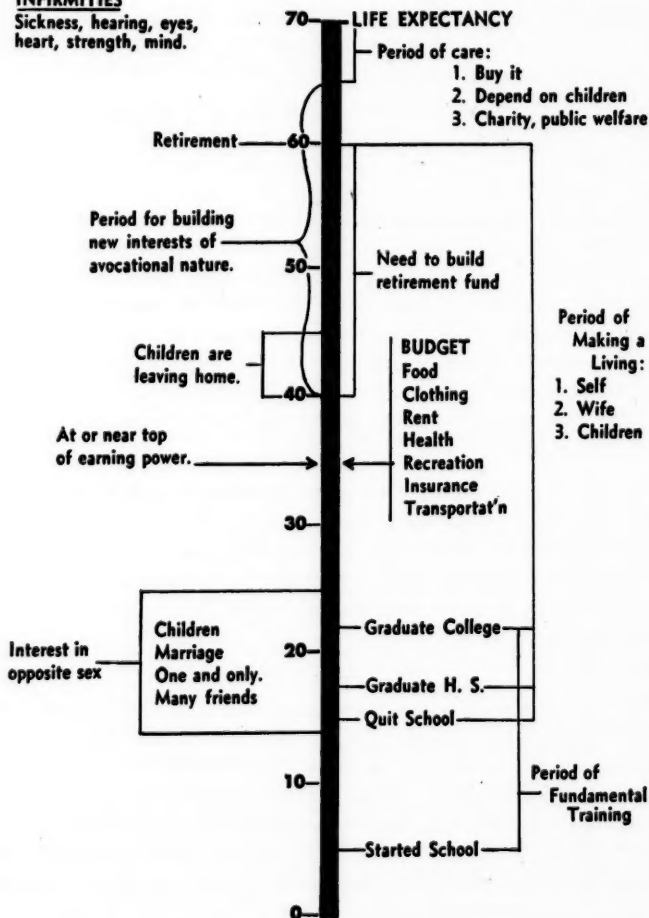
Mr. Ziegler is Assistant Principal of the Isaac E. Young High School, New Rochelle, New York.

GUIDANCE DEVICE FOR USE IN STIMULATING LIFE-PERSPECTIVE

Attendance Department
Isaac E. Young High School, New Rochelle, New York

INFIRMITIES

Sickness, hearing, eyes,
heart, strength, mind.



For most people, certain general things happen to them during their lifetime.

To go on, he is led to see (in terms of the line) that the period of fundamental training will end at either age sixteen (legal school-leaving age), at about eighteen upon graduation from high school, or at twenty-two upon graduation from college or from other specialized training institution. Which ever it will be for him, it will mark the end of his period of fundamental training in his lifetime. There will not be a second opportunity to go back and start all over again. It marks also the beginning of the period in which he must make a living first for himself and then for those who will be dependent upon him. This making-a-living period will belong and will continue until his retirement. This is what happens to most people. This is what can be expected to happen to him.

FORMING A FAMILY

A general question is then asked of the student relative to his girl friends (if student is a boy). The idea is developed that between the ages of perhaps fifteen and twenty-five he, like most people, will become interested in the opposite sex, will enjoy their company, will single one of them out as the best, will marry, and will then have a family. It happens to most people. It is the normal order of things.

When the family comes, his need for higher earning power becomes more important. The normal needs of a family, those things which cost money, are outlined with the student out of his own experience in his home. It is pointed out that now each of the children in his future family is starting out on a life-line of his own, and these several lines relate themselves to his line. He is led to see that, when his children start school, he will likely be between twenty-six and thirty on his line; that, when his children reach sixteen, eighteen, or twenty-two on their lines, he will be just that much farther along on his; that, when his family's needs are at the maximum, he should be at or near the top of his profession, or business, and earning-power; and that, when his family starts to leave home, he will be between forty-five and fifty. These things are merely a matter of arithmetic, based on the assumption that his family will arrive between twenty and twenty-five on his line.

RETIREMENT

The student usually knows of people who have retired or that are about to do so. The age of probable retirement is plotted on his line, and the necessity of his laying aside a financial reserve against the time of his retirement is developed. Suggestion is given him as to how others have created such a reserve, and this idea is referred again to his need not only to reach his maximum in

earning power as soon as possible but also to build for himself as high a maximum as is possible. He cannot allow his earning power to become a matter of drift.

Up toward the end of this life-expectancy line is developed the picture of old age, of the things that happen to people in their declining years. From his experience with old people, the student describes the characteristics of old people: loss of hearing, impairment of sight, loss of strength, weakening of the heart, slowing down of the mind, sickness, and finally the need for care. The student is then led to suggest the several ways in which care can be had; namely, (1) that which can be purchased out of the financial reserve laid aside for that purpose; (2) that which comes when dependence falls upon one's own children; and (3) that which comes from charitable or public-service sources.

These things are some of the things that happen to most people. They make up life. The last question usually is: "Is there any reason why these things will not happen in your case?"

PLANNING

With the above setting as background, the idea is developed that many things are good in life because they were planned that way. This concept is used as a device for getting him to think in terms of plans which he may want to evolve for himself, plans that carry a life perspective rather than a day-to-day perspective. This is done with the student as a means for conditioning him for referral to the guidance department.

As an informal test of the value which the student places upon the completed lifeline chart and the discussion which has just been completed, the attendance worker always pretends to throw the paper into the waste basket. In midair, he stops his hand on its way towards the basket and asks: "By the way, would you like to have this paper?" The reaction usually is that the student will quickly reach for it, look at it, carefully fold it, and place it in his wallet.

GUIDANCE IS ESSENTIAL

It is no secret that the typical school loses before their graduation from high school a considerable part of every one-hundred students who enter eighth grade. Much of the lack of holding-power can be explained by failure to offer a curriculum suited to their needs. Much of the loss, however, cannot be so attributed, but can be placed to the failure of school attendance service in general to provide the guidance that is necessary for the student to see that what is available to him is really of importance to him.

Guidance is needed when a student, who has been previously successful in school and who is judged as having ability to continue successfully, takes a sudden notion that school holds little interest for him. It is also needed when a student, who is too young legally to leave school, takes upon himself to stay away in spite of parental wish, punishment by detention, threat of the law, and referral to court. When such a situation develops, the typical school attendance department usually finds itself on the losing end of an educational battle involving a contest of wills. By and large, the school's success in the battle is not very noteworthy. The horse cannot even be led consistently to water, much less, to make him drink. It is a losing battle, and if the students ever comes back to school, it is because he is either afraid of the "big stick" wielded by the school, or because of the guidance which he got in the school of hard knocks on the job.

This situation can be corrected by the typical school-attendance service. It can be done by giving up its general detachment from sound guidance procedure which is so apparent in typical school-attendance philosophy and method. An attendance service, which considers itself not as a waver of "the big stick" but as a service which understands behavior and which seeks to guide students and their parents, will work out guidance devices which will be effective in helping students to see sense in their staying in school.

This life-perspective guidance device herein described represents this school's attempt to bring good guidance philosophy and procedure into school attendance work. It represents only one of the ways in which sound guidance philosophy and method enter into the work of securing the presence of students where teaching and learning can take place. Much still needs to be done, and perhaps the next ten years will see a general invasion of the school attendance field by leaders in the field of guidance.

Special Music Appreciation Posters

Posters aimed at stimulating pupil's interest in music are being made available to schools and libraries by the American Music Conference, 332 South Michigan Avenue, a public service organization in Chicago, Illinois. The posters are 17 x 22 inches and are printed in three colors. First in the series depicts a youngster listening enraptured to music. In the background is a picture of a school orchestra and chorus. The message reads: "Yes, You Can." Other posters in the series will present other approaches to the theme that every child can benefit from musical activity in the school.

High-School Graduates After Six Years

WARREN O. COVERT

WITH the growing interest and activity in secondary-school curriculum revision programs in many parts of the United States, the need for evaluation of the present educational program grows proportionately. Increasing concern for the help secondary-school students receive in making adjustments while in school and in later life is a fundamental part of present-day curriculum planning. One method of determining the extent to which the secondary-educational program has helped youth in this process of adjustment is that of the student follow-up study. The follow-up study of former students may be used with relatively low costs to schools and may yield much pertinent data to schools and communities as a mean for improving their educational programs.

The study on which the following article is based had as its purposes (1) to describe the status and to present opinions of a sample of graduates of Iowa public high schools after the graduates had been out of school several years and (2) to learn if there were clearly observable relationships between their present adult status and their high-school experiences. The 1941 graduates of six high schools in Lee County, Iowa, were chosen as the sample. Two of these schools were in cities of about 15,000 population while four were in smaller towns. All of these schools were of the general high-school type. The responses to a large number of questions which would help describe the graduates were secured from seventy-five per cent of the 355 graduates by means of questionnaires. The following information was gathered about each graduate:

Mr. Covert wrote this article as a summary of his doctoral dissertation entitled: *A Study of the Relationship of High School Training to Out-of-School Status and Occupations of Youth of Lee County, Iowa*, an unpublished Ph.D. dissertation at the State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, 1948. Mr. Covert is Principal of the Laboratory Training School of Western Illinois State College, Macomb, Illinois.

1. All comparable data about the graduates while in school were taken from records in their high schools. These data included the ages, places of residence, rank in class, curriculums completed, subjects failed, and scholastic honors received.
2. College transcripts were secured for more than ninety per cent of the graduates who had attended or were attending college.
3. A total of 173 items of information about the graduates' home, school experiences, work experience, activities as a citizen, and recreational pursuits were gathered from a questionnaire filled out by each of the graduates.
4. Employers' estimates of the present occupational status of over ninety per cent of the employed graduates were obtained from a questionnaire sent to employers.
5. An estimate of the present socio-economic status of the graduates was obtained from a scale derived from graduates' replies to a number of the questions asked.
6. An estimate of job-satisfaction was secured from the responses of the employed graduates.
7. An estimate of the reliability of opinions of the graduates was obtained by interviewing a ten per cent sample of the respondents using seven of the same questions asked in the questionnaire.

A trial questionnaire, trial data sheets, the socio-economic scale, and the job-satisfaction scale used were revised on the basis of experience gained from the returns from the 1941 graduation class of another Iowa high school, not reported in this study.

FAMILY BACKGROUNDS AND RESIDENCE OF GRADUATES

Almost one fourth of these youth were living in homes that had been broken for one cause or another at the time of their graduation. Within five or six years after completing their high-school work, sixty-seven per cent were or had been married. Approximately six per cent have been divorced. Three out of five of the married graduates have one child or more and all indicated they would like to have children. Ninety-four per cent of the married graduates said they wanted more than one child. These facts, and the opinions expressed by the graduates, point to a definite need for instruction for marriage and family life. Although the increase in the marriage and birth rates during the war years are reflected in these data, the high per cent (94 to 97 per cent) of the graduates indicating that, in their opinion, it is desirable to have more adequate training in these areas suggests that the schools must give attention here.

No substantial differences in socio-economic status were found between the graduates who had completed vocational subject majors and those who had completed only academic subject majors. No high positive relationship between the occupational level of the fathers and the present socio-economic level of the graduates was found. Apparently there has been opportunity for these youth to improve themselves, for they have been bound neither to the occupation nor to the occupational level of their fathers.

Over ninety-one per cent of the graduates rated their health as good or excellent. Eight per cent rated their health as fair and one per cent as poor. One in seven had had a major illness in the six years after leaving high school, and only about nine per cent of the boys were rejected by Selective Service. In the area of health, one may assume that these graduates had learned how to care for their physical needs better than the general average group of their generation as shown by Selective Service figures. However, the fact that over half of these youth who now wear glasses have had them first fitted since they left high school suggests that there probably was a greater need for corrected vision while these youth were in high school than was recognized.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF GRADUATES

There was a positive relationship between overageness and low scholastic rank for this group. It was evident, also, that whatever factors made for scholastic success in the high schools studied operated to the advantage of the girls. Much higher percentages of girls than boys were in the highest fifth of their classes, and much lower percentages of the girls were in the lowest fifth. These facts should command attention of these schools in their programs of curriculum revision.

Almost fifty-six per cent of these youth had chosen the general curriculum and twenty per cent had selected the college preparatory curriculum while enrolled in school. The college preparatory curriculum was selective in terms of scholastic aptitude by the fact that sixty-two per cent of the graduates in this curriculum ranked in the highest two fifths of their classes. Homemaking, industrial arts, and agriculture tend to enroll students of lower ability in these schools as shown by the fact that eighty per cent, sixty-one per cent, and seventy-five per cent respectively of these three groups ranked in the lowest two fifths of their classes.

The vocational training in these schools emphasizes preparation for "white collar jobs" as indicated by the fact that forty-two per cent of the graduates had three or more years of training in the commercial field. An overemphasis on this type of training is shown by the fact that only twenty-one per cent of

these students are engaged in clerical and related occupations after graduation. In terms of the number of graduates who entered the occupational fields related to homemaking, industrial arts, and agriculture, these schools needed to provide greater opportunities and emphasis of these vocational areas rather than in commercial study. The following facts were found concerning the more academic areas:

1. All graduates were required to take three years of English.
2. Relatively small percentages of graduates take a major sequence of mathematics (17 per cent), foreign language (7 per cent), and the sciences (29 per cent).
3. Only fifty-six per cent of these youth completed a major in social studies, the field most directly related to citizenship training.
4. The foreign languages, social studies, and science had the lowest ratings on helpfulness to these youth in their after-school life.

Despite the importance placed on citizenship training and science training as objectives of secondary education in various statements of philosophy, the social studies area, which is the field most directly related to citizenship training, and the sciences are not held in high regard by these graduates judging from the number completing a major sequence in them and in their opinions of the helpfulness of these subjects. It may be concluded that the teachers in these fields are not convincing their students of the value of training in these fields. It is apparent also, from the small numbers of graduates who majored in foreign languages and from the rating of lowest helpfulness since graduation that these graduates do not consider foreign languages an important phase of secondary education.

Apparently graduates tend to measure the value of their high-school courses in terms of their occupational utility. A much greater percentage of those graduates taking the commercial subjects, homemaking, and industrial arts rated them as "most *helpful*" than rated them as "least *helpful*." Also, a much greater percentage rated homemaking, industrial, commercial subjects, and science as "best *liked*" subjects as compared with the percentages rating them as "least *liked*." It is evident, therefore, that there is something about these subjects which had a greater appeal to these high-school students than the more traditional academic subjects such as English, mathematics, and foreign languages.

That the extracurricular programs at the time these graduates were in high school were inadequate is indicated by the fact that a relatively large

number of these students did not participate in the program. Fifty-seven per cent of the total group did not participate in any interscholastic team sport as compared with forty-three per cent who did not participate in any intramural sport. More than one in four (28 per cent) of the graduates said they had participated in none of the extracurricular activities other than sports. Of the youth able to identify their major problems in high school, over one fifth said their major problem was "getting into activities."

The graduates of this group, in general, believe that the high schools should provide more comprehensive and functional curricular experiences than they did at the time they were in attendance. A great majority of these graduates believe the school should provide more vocational training, consumer education, sex education, marriage education, and extended social experiences.

From the above data on the formal education and training of these graduates, it is apparent that these high schools should make a careful analysis of their educational programs, curricular as well as as extracurricular, and revise their programs to make them more functional.

The guidance programs in the high schools included in this study at the time these youth were enrolled were inadequate according to the opinions expressed: for example, (a) twenty-one per cent of the graduates stated no one had helped them with their educational plans, (b) a large number of students took specialized vocational curricula in fields they did not enter after leaving high school, (c) many had unrealistic occupational plans as shown by their stated ambitions when they were in school and/or by their lack of planning. Also about half of the graduates evaluated the advice and help in planning they received in high school as "assistance of teachers willing to help with the subjects they taught," and seven per cent indicated "teachers were reluctant to help much outside of classwork." Only thirty per cent thought they had received in high school "assistance of trained, interested teachers desirous of helping them with their problems" and about fifteen per cent thought they had the "assistance of one of the teachers interested in them particularly."

The data on the guidance offerings of these schools indicate the need for more adequate guidance and counseling services including: (a) educational counseling, (b) vocational counseling and information, and (c) personal counseling. There is need in this country for several full-time well-trained guidance directors who can provide an in-service training program for teachers to make it possible to reach all students with counseling services. A placement service should be provided as part of the vocational guidance program.

For the twenty-eight per cent of the total group of graduates who attended college, the college record shows that half of the group is now attending, one seventh have graduated, and more than one third have dropped. Almost three out of every five who entered college attended institutions in Iowa, seventy-five per cent of those being state institutions of higher learning. About one fifth of the graduates who attended college attended institutions in neighboring states, and the remaining one fifth attended more distant colleges. Those who attended college ranked lower in their college classes, judging from their college grades, than they did in their high-school classes.

For the thirteen per cent of the respondents who had attended civilian technical schools, only one seventh were reported to have withdrawn, as compared with a third of those who entered college who withdrew before graduation. Twenty per cent of the graduates have served or are serving an apprenticeship, five per cent have completed one or more correspondence courses, seventeen per cent are, or have been enrolled in evening classes and five per cent have been, or are, enrolled in part-time schools.

The youth in these high schools should be encouraged to look realistically at their chances for formal education and training after they leave high school. They should be encouraged to consider: (1) their probable occupational needs (2) the colleges and technical schools they most probably will attend, (3) their prospects for staying in college or technical school until they complete their degrees or their periods of training.

THE GRADUATES' OCCUPATION

One third of the graduates had had part-time work experience while attending high school, of the type their first jobs required. Two thirds of the graduates secured their first jobs within a month after they left high school. Forty per cent secured their first jobs entirely through their own effort, twenty per cent through their school contacts, and the remainder through parents or friends. Over half of the graduates stayed at their first jobs less than a year and only nineteen per cent left them to enter military service.

There is not a high positive relationship between the vocational training these youth secured in high school and the occupation in which they were engaged six years after high school. For example, although forty-two per cent of these youth completed a major sequence in commercial subjects, fewer than twenty-one per cent were engaged in clerical or related work. There also is not a high positive relationship between the occupational plans of these graduates while in high school and the occupations in which they find themselves six years after graduation. For example, only nine per cent of the graduates

planned to be craftsmen, foremen, or operatives and seventeen per cent now find themselves working at these jobs.

Much greater percentages of graduates who ranked high scholastically are now full-time students and professional workers than are those who ranked low in scholarship. Much greater percentages of graduates from the lowest class ranks are craftsmen, laborers, or unemployed than of the graduates from the highest class ranks. It may be concluded, therefore, that, for this group, rank in class was a significant factor predictive of their future broad occupational classification.

Most of the employed graduates seem satisfied with their working conditions and relationships with fellow employers. However, the employed graduates rated their chances of advancement and the special training required for their present jobs lower than did their employers. More adequate vocational guidance should help the graduates recognize the occupational opportunities in their vocations.

The employed graduates and their employers agreed substantially in that the high schools could have helped the graduates more effectively in making vocational adjustments by: (1) helping the graduate understand his own aptitudes and limitations, (2) helping the graduates acquire a knowledge of occupational fields and working conditions, and (3) helping the graduates achieve a better general education. Parents, wives, and their experience in their present jobs are the influences identified by the graduates as having most weight in determining their vocational goals.

Compared to the total group by the job satisfaction scale as set up, proprietors, managers, and officials and those in semiprofessional work were best satisfied with their vocations. Service workers and laborers were least satisfied. Little difference in job satisfaction ratings was found according to the employed graduate's rank in his class. More than twice as great a percentage of the employed girls had the lowest job satisfaction rating as the employed boys who had the lowest job satisfaction rating. The job satisfaction of the graduates is positively related to his employer's rating of him compared to other employees at the same type of work. These data also are evidence of a need for more realistic vocational guidance.

THE GRADUATES AS CITIZENS

Graduates of the four small schools in the study indicated that they had voted in one or more elections in greater ratio (fifty-five per cent) than the graduates of the larger schools (thirty-nine per cent). A majority of the graduates, all of whom are now of voting age, have never voted in any election.

Only one in four of the graduates who responded considers himself a member of a political party. Approximately equal numbers stated that they belonged to the Democratic and the Republican parties. Of those who consider themselves party members, eighty-four per cent belong to the same party as their fathers.

Very few (two per cent) have ever actively campaigned politically, and only one of the graduates had been a candidate. However, a somewhat greater percentage (eight per cent) had written letters or sent telegrams on civic matters to legislators or editors.

One in ten of the graduates say that they are members of service clubs (Kiwanis, Lions, American Legion, *etc.*). Most of these being men, this would mean that about one in five of the boys who were graduated is a service club member. All of these except one were graduates of the larger schools. Few of the group were volunteer leaders in youth groups. Less than four per cent said they had been convicted of a law violation, and all of those were misdemeanors except one.

These graduates were not sufficiently interested in civic affairs to vote even though they were eligible and had an opportunity to do so. In terms of performance, there is not a high carry-over value from the citizenship training in these high schools to the acceptance of their responsibility for exercising their franchise. Neither do they regard themselves as members of political parties and only a very small percentage have been active in any political affairs. The lack of interest in civic affairs is further shown by the small percentage who are members of civic clubs, or are serving in capacities as leaders of youth groups, *etc.* On the other hand, these youth are not poor citizens judged in terms of brushes with the law. Less than four per cent had been convicted of law violations and only one student had been convicted of a felony.

Five of the graduates of the 1941 classes of Lee County public high schools died in Service. Of these, three were from one of the large schools and two were from one of the small schools. Almost eighty-four per cent of the boys were in service during the war. Of the remaining boys, twice as many were rejected as were deferred. Only eight per cent of the graduates who were in Service were in for less than two years. Forty-eight per cent served from two to three years, and forty-two per cent from three to four years. Almost a fourth of the graduates who received special training in the service thought that training would help them in their occupations, and fifty-eight per cent thought that it would help them in a general way.

RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES OF GRADUATES

Most of the graduates were working forty to forty-nine hours per week. Few had civic responsibilities. Very few of the employed graduates were spending time on additional formal schooling. Fewer than two in five have family responsibilities which include care of children. Therefore, it may be concluded that most of the graduates have a considerable amount of leisure time. There is little carry-over value from the sports program in which these youth participated while in high school to the type of sports activity in which they engage six years after graduation. More of the individual and dual sports (fishing, swimming, tennis, bowling, golf, etc.) are participated in now in the same or greater percentages than the graduates participated in them in high school. The major team sports in most high schools, football and basketball, now have only small fractions of the percentages of participation that they had in high school. More attention in the physical education and sports programs should be given to individual and dual sports. Such activities as social dancing and other co-recreational activities should be taught as a part of the physical education program.

Six out of seven of the graduates subscribed to newspapers six years after graduation and most subscribe to magazines, mainly of the popular family type or the women's magazines. *Readers' Digest* is the most popular single magazine, the one to which almost two fifths of the graduates subscribe. *Life* magazine has half the number of subscribers that the *Readers' Digest* has and other magazines follow in much smaller numbers. Almost half of the respondents preferred magazine articles of the factual type, a sixth preferred fiction, and the remainder had no preference.

Sixty-four per cent of the graduates had read three or more books for recreation during the six months preceding the study. Whereas most of the graduates preferred factual articles in magazines, most (56 per cent) said they preferred fiction in books. The girls of the group read somewhat more than the boys, but there were small differences between the graduates of the different ranks in their classes and those with academic or vocational majors.

Two thirds of the respondents said they had one or more hobbies classified as follows: twenty-one per cent classified their hobbies as of the "collecting" type and forty-two per cent indicated theirs were of the "skills" type. Twenty per cent said that "participating in sports events" was their hobby while sixteen per cent said "watching sports events" was theirs. These hobbies occupied a considerable number of hours for most of these graduates, sixty per cent spending one through four hours per week, and twenty-six per cent spending over four hours per week on them.

Few of these graduates now belong to more than one social and fraternal organizations and a majority belong to none. Although only about two fifths of the graduates participate in social dancing once a month or oftener now, ninety two per cent said they would approve of teaching social dancing in high-school physical educational classes.

The most popular type of recreational activity for these youth were the commercial or passive type, such as attending movies, sports events, listening to the radio, and similar pastimes. Moreover, they showed little discrimination in their choice of movies and radio programs. The English, art, and music departments in these schools should help the student become more critical of the radio programs they hear and the movies they attend.

From these data on the home life, education and training, vocations, citizenship, and recreation of graduates of several public high schools, one may learn something of the effectiveness of their high-school training from the graduate's viewpoint. Such data as these, used along with the more objective data that may be gathered from tests, from community surveys, from accrediting agencies, *etc.*, will furnish the information needed to build educational programs which will more adequately prepare youth to meet their life needs. Studies such as the one described here will be most effective when they are made at regular intervals by local school systems as an integral part of their educational programs.

Carnegie Corporation Grants \$100,000

A GRANT of \$100,000 has been made by the trustees of the Carnegie Corporation of New York to the National Education Association for the year-round development of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development. This grant covers a period of three years. The laboratory will continue to be sponsored by the NEA Division of Adult Education Services, the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan and other co-operating universities. The grant will permit an expansion of present research programs through the appointment of a research program director to be located at the Research Center for Group Dynamics and make possible the employment of one or more full-time consultants to work with the director of the NEA Division of Adult Education Services who serves as director of the laboratory. Further information about the laboratory may be obtained from the Division of Adult Education Services, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C.

A Twelfth-Grade Course In Occupations

MILDRED G. FOX

WESTFIELD High School introduced a class in occupations in February, 1948. Up to that time, most of the vocational information was given in student interviews, although some group vocational study was done by the various departments, especially English and social studies. Occupations was an experiment to see how vocational guidance would work when given in a special class to high-school seniors. Since high-school students begin at this time to think seriously about what they will be doing after graduation, it was felt there was excellent opportunity to reach them by offering an organized course to help them plan for the future. The course was planned to be a combination study of self-appraisal and careers.

After drawing up a course of study which it was thought would fit the needs of the students in our community, we secured the approval of our principal, superintendent, Board of Education, and the State Department of Education. Then the class was scheduled for five periods a week on a semester plan for two and one half credits. Although at first the course was proposed for the senior general students only, it was decided to have it elective to all students. This made possible a comparison of the reactions of students from the various grades and courses.

The basic idea of the class was to help the student analyze himself, to become familiar with the world of work, to think seriously about one or more occupations, and to know how to find a job and progress in it. The methods, materials, and subject matter was kept flexible to meet the needs of the different students. No textbook was used; instead pamphlets, reference materials, clippings, films, filmstrips, and related materials were used. Wherever possible, students were included in the planning.

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CONTENT

The course of study was divided into four units. In the first unit, students were taught to analyze themselves by using school records, student autobiographies, personality rating sheets, and various tests such as study-habit inventories, *Kuder Preference Record*, and the *California Personality Test*. Career information was included in this unit, too, with the students making an investigation of the world of work by using charts, filmstrips, and reference materials of various kinds.

During the second unit, the students selected one or more fields of work that seemed attractive to them after having interviews with the teacher who helped to appraise the results of the various tests which were kept in individual folders. Each student worked on a project investigating the occupation or occupations of his choice while using an outline which the class suggested. At all times, the teacher worked closely with the guidance office and the library, but this was especially true in this unit. The guidance director and librarian helped the students become familiar with available material by holding laboratory periods in the guidance office and the library. The second part of this unit included a series of films and several guest speakers on various occupations.

The third unit was a survey of the local field with regard to jobs for beginning workers as well as local educational and training opportunities. Visits were made by committees and individuals, and guest speakers were invited to class.

In the final unit, students studied getting and keeping a job. The occupational monograph *How to Get the Job*, published by the Science Research Associates, was basic for the first part of the unit which included application blanks, letters of application, and interviews. The second part of this unit included discussions on attitudes and personal traits which help one succeed on the job. The last few sessions of class were discussions of hobbies, recreational opportunities, summer jobs and plans.

The ideas for the course of study were formulated as a result of a class in group guidance taught by Dr. Robert Hoppock at New York University. The sources of materials for the class were many and varied. Especially noteworthy were the publications of the city of Chicago for its classes in self-appraisal and careers. A beginning teacher will find that her task is not easy because there is a wealth of material for her to become acquainted with and use. Choice of what is best suited to local needs must be made.

EVALUATION

The class started with twenty-one students. This proved to be an ideal number to work with, for it made possible the combination of individual counseling and group work. As with all classes, there are some discouragements. Sometimes the teacher felt that she was not accomplishing what she had hoped. Since class instruction was being organized as it went along, there were times when the teacher felt that there were gaps that shouldn't have been there. Since the initial step has been made, however, future classes will benefit by having more materials and information available and by developing certain units more fully. One thing is certain, more time must be allotted for personal interviews, for they seemed to be the key to the real contact with the student.

With the idea of evaluating the course and possibly revising the course of study, the students were asked to answer two questions. The questions were as follows: What did you like about the course? and What changes can you suggest for another year? Some of the replies to the first question were: "The thing I liked best about the course was the various tests we took for they helped me understand myself." "I think the best part of the course was the project, because you really got to know all the details about the job." "The course did just what it was supposed to do. I became more familiar with the occupation I was interested in and the tests were enlightening." "I liked best the films, visitors, and trips." "The movies were best." "I liked the interviews best." "It was the best course I ever had."

In answer to the question: What changes can you suggest for another year? These suggestions were made: "Show more films and have more trips," "Have more speakers from different occupations." "Don't have an examination or project." "Have more than one project required." "Have a demonstration of our work or a program." "Have the class study more occupations."

As one looks back over the semester's work, the most surprising thing is the discovery of the need of these youngsters for someone who will share their worries and joys and help them with their problems. Perhaps the writer was more amazed by this because she is a guidance counselor and is in close touch with many students. Some of these students she had taught in social studies classes, and practically all of them had been to the guidance office for various interviews. Yet this class showed her that, when there was day by day contact in a class of this kind, a closer rapport could be developed between students and counselor which made possible the discussion of personal problems. This appeared to be the most important contribution of this experimental class.

Should One Choose to Teach?

ALICE S. CLARK

SHALL I prepare to teach? That is what each of you is asking. Only you can decide. Perhaps my story will help you make that decision—

This is my twenty-fifth year of teaching. I've thought many times about why I became a teacher and just why I'm still at it—thought about it seriously and frequently during the past six years. You see, I had to crystallize my own thinking in order to guide my three daughters in choosing their life's work. I needed to be able to point the desirable as well as the undesirable features that go along with this profession. They had seen some of the disadvantages without being able to understand the satisfaction that I had experienced through the years. Long before this invitation came to visit and talk with you, I realized that teaching had met my needs more completely than anything else I could have chosen.

WHY I CHOSE TEACHING

However, in order for you to appreciate the opportunities given you today, I need to show you what it was like when I started my career. At sixteen-I was ready for college. There had been no guidance in high school whatsoever. I didn't know that I would be at all suited to teaching—I didn't even think of that. I just wanted to be able to support myself and feel independent. Few doors were open to girls. Teaching was a respected and dignified vocation and I found children interesting. I liked little children better than older ones, but wouldn't think of training for that area for anyone could teach first grade—at least the public and many administrators seemed to think so. The opinion was that the lower the grade one taught, the less he needed to know, so the lower the salary. Therefore, when the moment

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came for choosing the field of specialization, I chose the junior high-school level. I was flattered when asked to teach an extra assignment in the training school because I had been graded an "A" teacher. That assured me that I had nothing to fear when the time should come for me to go out on my own.

Shortly before graduation, a county superintendent from southern Maryland came to the college to find teachers. He had been a professor of education at the college a few years before, but had left because his wife wanted to return to her old home in her native state. He approved of the training given at this college and thought it a good idea to get its graduates to fill vacancies in his own area. I was one of the three recommended to be interviewed. He explained that we would be placed in rural schools the first year because we were inexperienced. (What a strange idea—I'm convinced today that our finest and most experienced teachers should go into the rural districts for they are better equipped to meet the needs there.) It sounded like a big adventure for us—weekends in Baltimore and Washington—a long, long way from home. Weren't we brave?

To make a long story short, I found myself with fifty-two pupils ranging in age from six to fourteen and including grades one through seven. It was truly a big adventure and had it not been for a wise and helpful supervisor and the keen interest of this superintendent, I never should have lived through it. Every day brought new and varied problems—problems of which I'd never dreamed. I soon realized that I knew very, very little—little about teaching and little about people. I saw it through, however, and finished the year. Rarely did I get to bed before two o'clock—so many blunders I made. Yet, I learned more in that one year about people than I had learned in all of my earlier life. I really did have a rich *experience*—never since have I been afraid to tackle hard jobs. (I managed some of those weekends, too, in spite of hard work.)

All of my teaching, other than that first year, has been in Sarasota, in the very same building. Never have I found my work uninteresting—not even that year in Maryland.

WHAT DO I FIND TODAY?

Today, conditions are quite different. You have guidance here in your high school. Your aptitudes, talents, and personalities are studied. That gives you something to guide you in choosing your life's work. You know that average or above average ability, a liking for children, a willingness to see a task through, and patience (which is really self-control) are basic requirements for teaching. Of course, talent in music and art or training in these fields,

with a dab of originality added, will fortify you more. You will know how to choose the area for which you are best suited and can feel that every level is equally appreciated. There is the single salary scale to prove that no matter how low the level you choose, it is recognized as being of equal importance, if not more importance, than that of the higher grades.

Financing your education today is easier. Many scholarships are offered to deserving people. You who choose to teach will have better equipment, with buildings better suited to child and teacher needs. You will have more freedom in teaching than has ever been known, for there has come an awakening to the importance of what is best for each child rather than placing emphasis on covering subject matter. What a relief that is!

There is more security for teachers today. The salaries are higher than ever before with prospects for even better ones as a result of teacher shortages. The public seems to be aware of the great importance of good teachers and to understand that attractive salaries will draw better instructors. Teacher retirement compensation has been made worth while too. Group insurance adds to the teacher's feeling of security.

With such improved conditions, the prestige of teachers is bound to mount. Those who choose to teach will see not only reasonable security, but also opportunity for self-expression which is not found in many other fields of work. There is opportunity for using all your talents, opportunity for individualism, opportunity for creative thinking, and opportunity for social service. You will find opportunity for leadership as well as for graceful fellowship. You will draw respect from your fellowmen as you find deep satisfaction in living. Many people believe that teaching is the best way to serve God and mankind. That is why many teachers stayed in the profession even though they could earn better pay in other work. Some who left want to return, for they have missed the contact with young people.

Teachers also have opportunity for personal growth. As they mold the characters of those whom they guide, they must exemplify what they teach: tolerance, open-mindedness, unselfishness, and kindness. They learn to think more of others than of themselves. They acquire, with their pupils, new knowledge from day to day. All these things, in the daily round, give the teacher a better understanding of life and an appreciation of its purpose.

Some teachers can so arrange their work that there is time, too, to carry out their aims in other arts. Some write books. One of my friends is co-author of a social studies text used here in our fourth grades. I read recently of a teacher in Miami who supplemented her salary with the income from her published book. Certainly one who teaches can gather much material about

which to write if he desires. Others who are musically inclined are members of musical groups in their communities and, with ability, may direct the groups or compose music; still others engage in painting and sculpture; others, in flower cultivation. Many more accomplishments might occur to our minds if we had time to make a study of the leisure-time activities of teachers.

In the profession, contacts may be made with many other interesting people. When you go away for study in the summer—and you must, you know, just as doctors need to keep informed about the newer and better treatments for diseases—you frequently meet writers, lecturers, entertainers, and outstanding educators whom you would not meet in most of the other fields of work. Thus, some of the cultural arts which you may have missed become a part of your daily life as you pursue your career.

WHAT ARE THE PERSONAL SATISFACTIONS?

As for your own faculties, being a teacher makes you more observant. You begin to see ordinary things about as you keep alert for materials as aids in your teaching. As a teacher, things you've always taken for granted take on a significant meaning, whether it be boxes for small children to build into furniture or pictures to clarify something for your classes; everything becomes a possibility. I never go for a walk or trip with my pupils that I don't learn something new or see something different in relation to my work. It is surprising, too, what stimulation a walk may bring forth. Last year after seeing some morning glories on one of our trips a little girl who had shown little originality before said this: "On the garden wall were blue morning glories, gently swaying in the cool, cool breeze."

The teacher develops a sense of humor, too, if he isn't already blessed with it. This saving faculty renders every day into something interesting; not boring or monotonous, for no two days are alike and no two children are alike. Boredom isn't even a part of teaching; and, if in rare cases it seems to be, there must be something wrong with the teacher. Of course you don't laugh *at* them but *with* them, or in most rare cases you smile inwardly just to enjoy yourself in the quaint things they do or say. Just the other day, a little fellow who had become six since Christmas was examining a sea-horse and joining in the discussion, when he remarked: "Wait till I show you the pictures my mama has of some big sea animals. I'll bring them tomorrow. They've got all those old octopussiecats down under the water!"

Then there was the little girl who asked, "What's a butter dream?" She had joined in the singing of the round, "Row, row, row your boat, gently

down the stream; merrily, merrily, merrily, merrily, Life's a butter dream," or so it had sounded to her.

It is true that any job requires work and strict application if one is to succeed, but not many positions give the opportunity to reach into homes and vitally touch all who make up a home. Through working with children, you can make the finest of friends, for fathers and mothers are the nicest kind of folks if you form a real partnership with them. They sincerely want to do that which is best for their children, but they do not always know what is best. Neither do you, the teacher, who tries to become a specialist with children. It takes both parents and teachers to do a good job, and how appreciative these parents are when they see that you, too, really have their child's interest at heart. They become the most satisfying of friends.

Indeed a child's first teachers are his parents. How fitting then that the very same kind of college training that makes for better teaching also makes for better parenthood. Psychology, sociology, health, home nursing, home economics, music—all these help potential fathers and mothers better to understand and guide their own children.

Circumstance and interest placed me with little children. Having my own three children gave me a dual incentive to plan, study, experiment, and read all that I could find in order to do a better job of teaching little children to live happily together while at the same time laying a foundation in habits and attitudes which should follow them through life. Little children are so natural if you let them be; so honest in how they feel.

Still I can hear my little inn-keeper in a spontaneous dramatization of the Christmas story, as he sat perched on top of our worktable with complete disregard for the tools. When he heard the knock at the door, he turned an imaginary knob and looking out at Joseph and Mary, he said, "Can't you see I ain't got a single bed? You'll jist have to go to sleep in the barn!"

Still laughing (to myself) I recall the little fellow who in the midst of a very busy roomful of beginners (each child at his own interest—learning to live with others as he painted, sewed, played in the improvised store, or used the small furniture the group had made) kept darting about—not too noisily, and unnoticed by any except the teacher, who was busy with a team in the reading chairs. As though he felt her question, he paused once, after he had made a peculiar gesture toward the readers, and in a baby lisp whispered, "Mrs. Clark, I'm a thkunk (skunk!). I'm th-praying 'cause that's the way I perfect mythelf!"

While we need teachers in every field, the greatest need is in the elementary grades, especially with the very young, the beginners. This is where

my heart is. If you find little children interesting, if you can practice self-control and use patience, if you can show common sense and are willing to be on your toes, then let me urge you to prepare for this field. I'm so happy that one of my own daughters has chosen this work, for long ago I recognized in her such qualities as should make her successful and happy in this kind of teaching.

Being a pupil's very first teacher has a reward, too, of which no other teacher can boast. No matter what your limitations may be, small children, if you are lovable, think you are wonderful. Affection and friendship is all they ask; often these two things are all they require throughout life. You see, when one begins school for the very first time, it is the biggest moment of one's whole life. Breaking away from mother and security to enter into a world of many people can be both confusing and fearful, or it can be wonderful and satisfying. The reaction in the child depends entirely upon the teacher's attitude, her understanding of little children, and her ability to adapt herself to the child's needs. What happiness and relief you give the parents of these little ones when you say, "No matter what you have done or have failed to do with your child, we will work together." Parents are so fearful for their children, and they need often to be reassured.

For there is a very serious side and good teachers have to consider the mind and soul of the child in connection with that of the parents and her own. Often the school becomes a kind of secondary home to the little one where he is cared for and loved many hours of the day. There was the little girl on a Friday recently, whose mother is an accountant and is away from home on Saturday too, who said, "I'm gonna pray God don't let school stop, 'cause what will I do tomorrow?" A revelation to me that she was happy in her school life and that I'd taught her, too, to believe in prayer.

One day I made the prayer. It was a cloudy day and we had learned something important about the sun. Although we could not see it, it was shining just the same. "May I give thanks today?" I asked. And the prayer went something like this: "Thank you, God, that the sun never stops shining, but that it gives us warmth and gives us light; gives us day and gives us night." I didn't realize that rhythm and rhyme were there, but one appreciative little ear had caught it, and big brown eyes looked up at me with a smile and, "Thank you, Mrs. Clark. That was pretty."

How very important these first years are and what lasting impressions are made. These contacts, too, keep the teacher young. Often when I am at work after my little pupils have gone home, I am surprised to see an older child with an interested face looking in my door to see what new things are going

on since he was a beginner. If I encourage at all, the visitor comes in and we talk about old times. "Do you still have the doll bed we made? Oh, there's the fire truck we built. But it has been painted. Do they play in it now like we did?" Still good friends, you see.

During the holidays, a junior in college came to visit me, one who is preparing to teach. She looked about the classroom, asked questions, then turned to me and said, "Mrs. Clark, do you still have those fairy pictures that went with that phonics story you used to tell?"

"Why, I outgrew the need for those," I replied.

"Well, don't you still believe in phonics?"

"Oh yes," I answered, "but not for all, nor at just the same time as I used to do it. I have a better plan now; one that makes phonics more functional, I believe."

"Oh dear!" she sighed. "That was the loveliest story. I dearly loved for that part of the day to come. And those darling pictures. I can close my eyes and see them still!" She said.

I didn't tell her that I had not disposed of them, for those cards are packed away for sentimental reasons. My husband had made all the illustrations for me years ago in the evening after his work was done. When the three little girls were asleep in bed, we'd sneak away over to the school next door and enter my room where we could work on the materials I would need. They really were very ordinary pictures, but to the very young child they had been beautiful. I did not want her to see them again, for her adult eyes would discover what the young ones never could believe. May she learn, too, in after years that teaching keeps the spirit young; that little children are both interesting, lovable, and most responsive to any effort for their welfare, provided that effort is given with an understanding heart.

Yes, other doors are open today, for women compete with men in almost every field of endeavor; but none of those doors opens to so much happiness as does the door to teaching.

WHO TEACHES?

Frankly, I do not know of a single other job I could have chosen that could have given me the opportunity to live a normal home life, raise a family, help to supplement the family income, pursue the work of my choice, and also have an interesting avocation. (As some of you know I have been church organist for many years.) Although one doesn't have to teach and raise a family at the same time, it is good to know that it can be done if the need arises. Successful marriage, at best, is a partnership. By learning teamwork and co-operation and by teaching one's children, the family need not suffer

because mother teaches. In fact, my three daughters and I went to school together as long as they were in elementary school. I had the delightful experience of teaching them their first years, and I believe we are closer because of that experience. Certainly, it gave me an understanding of what to expect of them throughout the remainder of their education. All the things that I do now for my pupils make a sort of atonement for the things that I did not know to do for my own as they came along. Now they are proud of their mother that she has found teaching so worth while and can understand that, because I was busy, they learned to stand alone and to become self-reliant. This they know now was good for them, good for their independence and a step to success in any field.

But, you interpose, "Aren't teachers neurotic, or don't they become so?" Perhaps some do. I read that in print two years ago but was not bold enough to answer. Some teachers are neurotic; but they would have been in any occupation, for they had never learned to think of others instead of self. I noticed that Dr. Peele, the minister-psychiatrist, who recently published *A Guide to Confident Living*, did not use teachers in his examples of people from every walk of life who came to him for consultation. If I recall correctly, those who came had worn themselves out over trivial matters or were those who had no purpose in life. One gets just as tired over trivial things as over worth-while things, but finds no permanent satisfaction to compensate for that tiredness. Maybe teachers just didn't have time to go to Dr. Peele, I don't know; but I am of the opinion that they were so concerned with helping others that they found no time to develop imaginary ills. They certainly don't lack purpose in living—not teachers!

Then you ask, "But will I be successful?" You could ask that on entering any profession. I must tell you that success in life is measured by usefulness. In no other profession, except perhaps the ministry and medicine, is there so great an opportunity for usefulness. Christian social service is a natural part of this profession. The greatest contribution ever made to mankind was that of the finest of teachers, Jesus Christ, who taught by using the simple everyday things for concrete illustrations, by living what he preached, and by doing good everywhere. Your success depends wholly upon attitude and application.

Yes, teaching is a job and a big one. The hours are tiring to body, mind, and soul because so much has to be given, so much is taken out; but that giving of one's self daily to those who look for it brings the very nicest and most satisfying tiredness that I know. After twenty-five years of "getting tired," I still say I hope that many of you will catch the vision and follow the gleam. Teaching needs you!

News Notes

NATIONAL HIGH-SCHOOL DEBATE TOPIC.—The national high-school debate topic for the school year 1949-50, as selected by the National University Extension Association, is, "Resolved: That the President of the United States should be elected by the direct vote of the people." The August-September, 1949, issue of the *Congressional Digest*, published at 1631 K Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., is devoted entirely (32 pages) to this topic, giving the *pros* and *cons* of the debate. Copies of this publication may be secured at 75 cents each from the *Congressional Digest* at the above address.

INFORMING PARENTS OF PUPIL PROGRESS.—The Laboratory School of State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania, has recently devised report cards for use in the primary department, intermediate department, and junior high-school department of the school, which, it is believed, will inform parents more accurately of their child's progress in the school. In the development of the forms, the authors looked upon a report card as a "tool in the teaching-learning situation by which each individual's growth is evaluated. Since children differ very greatly in interests, abilities, personalities, and rate of development, judgment should be based on the child's characteristics and capacities." In accordance with these ideas and recognizing the fact that most parents and teachers are more interested in the development of the child's character and personality than his rank in class, this report is a record of the child's progress. The reports for the primary and intermediate departments are divided into the following five parts: progress in citizenship, language arts, quantitative relations, fine arts, and teachers' comments. Each of these is sub-divided into a number of related contributory factors.

SPEECH EDUCATION.—The November, 1949, issue of *The Bulletin* of the Michigan Secondary-School Association, Lansing, Michigan, (12 pages) has been devoted to the subject of "Curricular Speech Education in the Michigan High Schools." Almost everyone concerned with secondary education agrees that oral communication is an important part of general education. Provisions for teaching speech skills, however, are numerous and various. In an effort to provide some help on this problem, the November issue of the Michigan Association's *Bulletin* has been devoted to reports of how Michigan high schools are teaching oral skills as a part of general education.

CONFERENCE-WORKSHOP FOR SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS.—A Conference Workshop for School Board Members was held last month on the University of Michigan campus. A day was devoted to the discussion of such topics as: "Federal, State, and Local Aid to Education;" "Responsibilities for Education;" "The Area Studies and the Reorganization of School Districts;" "What Program Should Your School Offer to Meet the Needs of Your Boys and Girls?" "What Have We Learned About School Building?" "Making It Attractive for Good Teachers to Come and to Stay in Your Community—Salary Schedules, Tenure, Retirement, In-service Training;" "Finance: Bonding the District, Debt Service, Budget, Use of Federal and State Aid;" and "The Human Relations Factor in Administration."

SHOULD I TEACH?—The Division of Research of the State Education Department, Albany, New York, has recently prepared an excellent four-page pamphlet entitled "Should I Teach?" This publication, one of the State Department's occupational series, is a bulletin of information for high-school pupils. It is a short, excellent, over-view of this field of work. It covers such topics as choosing a vocation, personal qualifications, availability of jobs, salary, security, working conditions, training required, colleges providing teacher education, and a list of references.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT MEETING.—The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development will meet in Denver, Colorado, February 12-15, for its fourth annual convention. Dr. William C. Menninger, one of America's leading psychiatrists, will keynote the conference theme when he speaks Sunday, February 12, at 8:00 P. M. on the topic, "Mental Health for Better Living." Presented also at the first general meeting will be the 1950 *Yearbook* which carries the same title as Dr. Menninger's address, "Mental Health for Better Living." Plans are underway for meetings sometime during the convention of the following groups: Association for Student Teaching, National Association of Elementary-Science Teachers, American Education Fellowship, John Dewey Society, and Delta Kappa Gamma. Chairman of the local committee is James A. Hall, Director, Department of Instruction, Denver Public Schools, Denver, Colorado.

INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING INSTRUCTION.—The annual meeting of the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction will meet on Wednesday, March 1, 1950, at Atlantic City, New Jersey. The theme of the meeting is "Differentiated Instruction in Reading." Those participating in the program will include Emmett A. Betts, Professor of Psychology and Director of the Reading Clinic, Temple University; William S. Gray, Professor of Education, University of Chicago; Walter W. Cook, Professor of Education, University of Minnesota; Gerald A. Yoakam, Professor of Education, University of Pittsburgh; Sally Kate Mims, Elementary Supervisor, Parker School District, Greenville, S. C.; and Arthur J. Gates, Director, Division of Foundations of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. Complete information about the program may be secured from Mr. Roy A. Kress, Executive Secretary, I.C.I.R.I., The Reading Clinic, Temple University, Philadelphia 22, Pa. The International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction is a professional organization for all who are interested in the teaching of reading. Its membership consists of leading authorities in the field of reading, instructors who are giving college courses in reading, public school administrators and supervisors, teachers who are teaching reading in the public schools at all levels from first grade through the secondary school, and parents.

FRIENDSHIP BY MAIL.—Americans are given the opportunity to get to know Europeans directly through exchanging friendly letters. In less than a year from the start of "Letters Abroad" over 12,000 people are corresponding with each other. Each month the number of new friendships grows. By the end of another year, many thousand men and women all over the world will know each other and understand each other better through this simple means. The World Affairs Council, through volunteers, translates letters wherever necessary. Anyone is eligible to take part in the project. There is no cost, for the Council provides the service as a part of its work towards a more stable peace. Anyone who wishes may take part. Write to: "Letters Abroad," World Affairs Council of Philadelphia, 1411 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 2, Pennsylvania.

NEW FILM EXPLAINS MODERN ART.—The perplexity of the average layman about modern art and the answers to this dilemma are presented in a motion picture short called *What Is Modern Art*, recently released by the Princeton Film Center. Throughout the picture, which is in full color and runs twenty minutes, the photographer objects to "pictures that don't make sense," an attitude described by artists as the "typical reaction of a person who doesn't know much about modern painting." The painter answers her objections and at the end of the film the photographer possesses a more sympathetic view of the problems and accomplishments of modern painters. The film, produced by Riethof Productions, Inc., is available through the Princeton Film Center, Princeton, N. J.

NATION-WIDE PICTURE-TAKING OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENTS.—The Fifth Annual National High-School Photographic Awards, a \$3,500 picture-taking contest for students in the 9th to 12th grades inclusive, has been announced by the Eastman Kodak Company. Photos of school activities made for the high-school yearbook or newspaper and pictures which have been created as examples of fine art will, for example, be featured classes of entry in addition to such standard classes as sports and photos of everyday life. A total of 337 cash prizes, ranging from Honorable Mentions of \$5 each to a Grand Prize of \$500, may be won.

Approved by the Contest Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the National High-School Photographic Awards have been widely endorsed by leading educators in all sections of the United States. Traveling exhibits of prize-winning photos from previous Awards are now circulating throughout the country and have won further endorsement from principals as being among the most popular exhibits of the school year.

The coming competition opens January 12 and closes April 14, 1950. Pictures made without professional help by any boy or girl attending daily any of the high-school grades from the ninth to the twelfth inclusive are eligible for entry. All pictures, however, must have been taken since May 7, 1949. Prints or enlargements may be of any size up to 7x7 inches. Prints need not be made by the entrant. All pictures must be unretouched black-and-whites; color photos or pictures made from more than one negative are not eligible for entry.

Pictures entered in this competition will be judged on their inherent interest and appeal and the story the pictures tell. As a result, snapshots made with inexpensive cameras will stand as good a chance of becoming prize winners as those made with the most advanced equipment. Students in the lower grades will also have as much of an opportunity to win as upper classmen. Last year's Grand Prize Winner was only 15 years old and had been taking pictures just two years. Six of the twelve major prize winners in the 1949 contest were 16 years of age, or younger.

Pictures for the 1950 competition may be made with any camera and any make of black-and-white film. Photos should be accompanied by an official entry blank which may be obtained from high schools, photographic dealers, or on request to National High-School Photographic Awards, 343 State Street, Rochester 4, New York. Picture takers should be prepared to send in negatives of prize-winning pictures and releases for publication of any recognizable persons appearing in each photo. Pictures may have been or may be used in school publications such as the school newspaper or yearbook, but not elsewhere. Photographs entered in other competitions or contests are not eligible for entry in the National High-School Photographic Awards.

A booklet, *It's A Snap*, which gives hints on how to make good pictures, is offered to students who wish to compete for these awards or who want to know how to make better pictures. Requests may be addressed to National High-School Photographic Awards, 343 State Street, Rochester 4, New York.

The 1950 competition is divided into four classes of entry—School Life, Fine Arts, Sports, and Everyday Life. A first prize of \$100, a second prize of \$75, and a third prize of \$50 will be awarded in each class. In addition, twelve special prizes of \$25 each, 48 honorable mention of \$10 each, and 264 honorable mentions of \$5 each will also be given. A grand prize of \$500 will be given for the best picture entered in the competition.

CORONET FILMS MARKS DECADE.—With the celebration of its 10th anniversary in November, Coronet Films marks a decade of instructional film production that has seen virtually the birth of this new industry. In this brief period, Coronet Films has had the privilege of taking a leading role in the development of films that are produced "with educators . . . for educators." With the support of American school systems, Coronet has been able to grow to its present position as the leading and largest producer of 16-mm. educational sound films in the world. It is the only producer doing a complete production job from preliminary research through the final print distribution.

In the past ten years, Coronet Films has brought to the classroom screens in every part of the nation and foreign countries nearly 300 titles covering such diversified subjects as *Basketball Fundamentals* and *Matter and Energy* . . . ranging in scope from *Ancient Rome* to *Propaganda Techniques* . . . extending from such basic subjects as *Let's Count* to the timely study on *Global Concept in Maps*. Coronet has set for itself the goal of providing "a Coronet film to meet teaching needs in every subject, at every grade level." To do this, facilities at the Glenview (Ill.) Studios have been geared to produce eighty finished films a year.

Through the magic of cartoon animation and distinctive puppetry, Coronet Instructional Films this month "bring to life" a selection of some of literature's most famous folk tales. Six Coronet Fantasies are presented in this latest release group—*King Midas and the Golden Touch*, *The Honest Woodsman*, *The Legend of the Pied Piper*, *The Cow and the Sprite*, *Rumpelstiltskin*, and—for Christmas programs and parties—*A Visit From St. Nicholas*.

In addition to these special productions, Coronet also has released six regular instructional films that offer audiences an unusually wide choice of academic and social guidance material. Such diverse—and timely—subjects as force and motion, basic physics, undersea life, and the techniques of making a date are brought to class-room screens through the "eyes" of Coronet cameras. Films recently released in sound and in black-and-white or color by Coronet include the following for the junior and senior high-school level:

A Visit from St. Nicholas (1/3 reel)—retells the story of the midnight visit of St. Nicholas with his wonderful team of reindeer and bountiful sled of toys.

Force and Motion (one reel)—portrays the effects of the basic laws of mechanics and Newton's Three Laws of Motion.

Introduction to Physics (one reel)—stress laid on the importance of physics in understanding everyday problems.

Dating: Do's and Don'ts (1 1/4 reels)—offers pupils an opportunity to discuss and ask questions about their dating "problems."

Making Sense With Sentences (one reel)—Why should we use complete sentences when we write? What is a complete sentence? How can I make myself

better understood. These and other questions about "complete thoughts" and how they are expressed are answered in this unusual film.

Marine Animals and Their Foods ($\frac{3}{4}$ reel)—The interrelation of marine animals and their surroundings is demonstrated by showing various sea animals and the five general types of food on which they depend.

Mechanics of Liquids (one reel)—Technical information is presented in semi-story form to relate the subject matter to everyday living.

Keep Up With Your Studies (one reel)—treats the problem of daily assignments and how to handle them efficiently. Specific and helpful suggestions on organizing study time, study materials, and study conditions are presented.

Life in Hot, Wet Lands (one reel)—For social studies and geography units, this tells the story of how climate influences the lives of people in hot, wet lands. Correlated to standard texts and curriculum objectives.

BRINGING HISTORY TO LIFE.—A radio series being released by the University of Michigan through its station WUOM (91.7 MC) is gaining considerable attention throughout Michigan schools in the expectation that it will establish new values for broadcasting educational topics. The broadcasts are designed to employ radio facilities in such a way as to present knowledge with a vitality and force that will impel the listener to learn more about the events reported. All in all, the programs are expected to appeal as much to the general adult listening public as to school-age youth, for the University is making every effort to prepare programs which can be heard for pleasure or education or both. It is also anticipated that schools within a reasonable driving distance of Ann Arbor will occasionally combine classroom and radio instruction with first-hand visual inspection of the historical documents concerned.

Fundamentally, each program in the "Treasures" series recreates a historical event which entailed a particular document now in the William L. Clements Library at the University. In order to provide additional interest, the specific manuscript involved will be on public display in the Clements Library during the week following each broadcast.

PAID HIGH-SCHOOL ASSEMBLIES.—During each year the office of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals receives many requests for information concerning the availability of lectures, entertainers, artists, etc., for use in high-school assemblies. Two organizations have come to the attention of this Association. One of these, the International Platform Association, 109A Northrop Auditorium, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota, a nonprofit organization, provides various types of programs. Each summer the association holds a convention where schoolmen and other interested people have an opportunity to witness these artists in person. As a result, many high-school principals are thus enabled to make their program selections first-hand. The association has an official publication called *Talent*, which contains a complete directory of programs. This is distributed free to any high school that sponsors any of these programs. James S. Lombard of the Department of Concerts and Lecturers is Executive Secretary of the association. Complete information may be secured by writing him at the above address.

Another organization which provides services for high-school assemblies is the School Assembly Service, 119 East Main Street, Rochester 4, New York. Their talent attractions are chosen by an Advisory Board of school executives who meet each year in Chicago in October, hear the prospective talent before high-school audiences, and then make a selection to be included in a list of available programs. Not only do they have a list available for the present 1949-50

season, but already the new list for 1950-51 has been prepared. Complete information concerning the services of this organization may be secured by writing to the Rochester address above.

COUNTY MUSIC CONFERENCES.—A program of one-day community music conferences in every county of Mississippi will be held during the next few months, as reported by William S. Haynie, Superintendent of Music Education for the State Department of Education in Mississippi. This program is based on the plan for community music workshops developed by the American Music Conference. "The purpose of this project," states the report by Dr. Haynie, "is to acquaint civic leaders with our program of public school music. We believe that the general public will be more determined to promote music if it is better informed about the need for this great cultural force in our state. One important phase of this project is the presentation of the techniques and objectives of developing Community Music Councils throughout the state."

In most communities, the music council will be composed of representatives of such groups as the music clubs, school faculties, civic clubs, parent-teacher organizations, mayor's office, churches, private teachers, and other interested groups. Twenty-one objectives, with emphasis on music in the public schools, are set forth. As a result of these conferences, it is hoped that most, if not all, of these objectives will be eventually achieved:

1. A better community spirit through learning to sing and play together
2. A well-rounded program of music in rural recreation
3. More people learning to sing and to play musical instruments, adults as well as youth
4. Better family life through music in the home
5. A total school music program as recommended by the Music Educators National Conference
6. The organization of community bands, orchestras, and vocal groups
7. The development of greater interest and participation in church choirs
8. Special recognition to youth who exhibit outstanding talent in music
9. Opportunities for the underprivileged pupil for participation in music.
10. Performances by combined church choirs during religious holidays.
11. Increased interest in music by civic, fraternal, and cultural groups
12. Organization of a number of small singing and playing groups for their own pleasure
13. Barber shop quartets
14. Guitar, accordion, and harmonica bands
15. Development of American Legion, Veterans of Foreign Wars, and other service organization bands and drum corps
16. Music appreciation groups
17. Organization of record exchange groups
18. Establishment of a record lending library as a public library service
19. Sunday School orchestras
20. Organization of melody and rhythm bands
21. Adult piano classes

The Book Column

Professional Books

The American School and University, 1945-50. New York 16: American School Publishing Corp., 470 Fourth Ave. 1940. 784 pp. \$4.00. This yearbook is devoted to the design, construction, equipment, utilization, and maintenance of educational buildings and grounds. It, together with the 20 preceding issues, make available to school and college administrators and their control boards comprehensive information, analyzed and evaluated, on all phases of planning and designing educational plants. The editorial sections contain recent and basic materials on the school and college plant. Its text and illustrations furnish architects and engineers with suggestions for advanced school-plant design. The "Manufacturers' Product Index" provides aid to those responsible for the selection of equipment and supplies. The "Directory of Distributors" gives local sources of supply for school furniture and materials, audio-visual aids, and laboratory apparatus. Its "Manufacturers' Catalog Sections" bring together an organized presentation of products available for the educational plant, and the "Cumulative Subject" and "Authors' Indexes" provide comprehensive bibliographies on the educational plant.

BRACE, D. K. *Health and Physical Education for Junior and Senior High Schools.* New York: A. S. Barnes and Co. 1948. 414 pp. This book presents a curriculum in health education and physical education consisting of carefully designed units of instruction. The units in health education are designed for a year's course in health instruction, with suggestions for adaptation to two one-half year courses, or to other administrative plans for teaching health. Teaching units in physical education are provided for a maximum of a daily period of instruction for grades 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12. The units are so organized in different levels of attainment that they can be adapted to school programs offering instruction in physical education under different plans.

In order that school administrators and teachers may have a common understanding of basic policies relating to health and physical education, Part I is devoted to "Organization and Administration." Here are presented those essential standards accepted by authorities as being basic to sound secondary-school curricula in health and physical education. In all units of instruction, special emphasis has been placed upon inclusion of specific achievement standards which the average pupil is expected to reach. These standards relate, in addition to physical fitness and skills, to attitudes, information, safety, and related health instruction. Suggested learning activities and teaching methods through which achievement standards may be reached are included in each unit. Page references to selected books provide easy access to detailed subject matter.

BYRD, O. E., compiler. *Health Instruction Yearbook, 1949.* Stanford, California: Stanford University Press. 1949. 286 pp. \$3.50. The seventh edition follows the general plan of previous years, but is reduced in size because of the mounting

costs of publication. This year's edition is based upon selections from 1,643 articles which were read by the editor. The 255 articles chosen for condensation represent 80 different periodicals or special reports. Primarily because of the space devoted to arguments for and against socialized medicine, the greater number of selections came from the *Congressional Record*. This periodical provided 37 abstracts for the *Yearbook*, whereas the *Journal of the American Medical Association* supplied 30 condensations. In terms of the number of issues, the *American Journal of Public Health*, with a total of 11 articles, led all other publications with an average of slightly less than one article per issue.

Teachers and parents will be particularly interested in the chapter on school health in which the compiler reprints the resolutions on school health that were unanimously adopted by the American Public Health Association at its 67th annual meeting in Boston. Figures on the need for remedial physical education programs and the striking incidence of hearing impediments in school children are given. The responsibility for education in correcting mistaken ideas about mental health is pointed out.

Clinical Studies in Reading. I. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press. 1949. 187 pp. \$3.50. The present report of the practices and research carried on by the University of Chicago Reading Clinics deals with a program for the improvement of reading. Part I describes the different kinds of services rendered and illustrates the first purpose of the Clinics. It shows the manner in which clinical cases were selected, diagnosed, and instructed. The results obtained from such instruction were evaluated by standardized tests, by teachers, and in some instances, by the pupils themselves. Chapter I describes the poor readers of the lower school, and Chapter II, the upper school of the laboratory schools. Chapter III is concerned with a small group of the students in the college who were given help in reading during the autumn quarter. Chapter IV discusses the problems of more seriously retarded readers from the Chicago community.

Part II includes two experimental studies which were completed during the year. An analysis of the problem encountered in remedial reading focused attention on several other problems which require controlled investigation. Part III is composed of five papers concerning the emotional problems of poor readers. These papers were prepared by members of the staff and other authorities who were invited to participate in a special session of the 1946 Reading Conference sponsored by the Reading Clinics. The final chapter summarizes pertinent information from the three parts, points up the implications of these findings, and directs attention to special problems of concern to persons who wish to improve the reading achievements of pupils.

DAVIS, F. G., and NORRIS, P. S. *Guidance Handbook for Teachers*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 354 pp. \$3.50. The purpose of this book is to implement the guidance work expected of teachers. The authors present the philosophy of caring for the needs of the individual pupil and outline a program and the tools necessary for such activity. The text will prove especially valuable to teachers in schools which do not have counselors. It will also serve to aid principals and superintendents in providing their teachers with dynamic leadership for the guidance program.

Written from a psychological approach, the book considers the problems of the individual teacher, illustrated by numerous examples. Mental and physical health are considered and such subjects as keeping a pupil up to his ability, a new type of report for parents, cumulative records for counselor and teacher, a new scheme for rating personality traits and a cumulative plan for recording them, a new approach to the anecdotal record, and material on the guidance clinic are discussed. Annotated bibliographies, questions, and problems are included.

HARRIS, S. E. *The Market for College Graduates*. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 1949. 223 pp. \$4.00. In 1940, this country had three million living college graduates; in 1949, four and one-half million; by 1968, there will be from ten to fifteen million; and we are heading towards a college graduate population of thirty million, exclusive of twenty million with junior college diplomas. A large proportion of this astronomical supply of educated men and women will not be able to enter the profession or occupations of their choice. The author brings this unpleasant prospect into focus by studying the actual and future outlets for college graduates in business, teaching, law, medicine, engineering, and other professions; the position of women in these markets; the regional distribution of college graduates and professional men and women. Asking "Does schooling pay?" he provides the most comprehensive study available of the economic status, both past and present, of college graduates. He shows the relation between the college population and the labor market.

The author sounds a warning: unless intelligent citizens and the people who influence educational policy and millions of parents take action, this country will be subjected to the bitter burden of a frustrated intelligentsia, with all that implies of political and social tensions. He proposes certain solutions: a broadcast of the facts to American youth, greater emphasis on the noneconomic aspects of education, and an extension of the market for college graduates to be achieved by attack on restrictionism in medicine and other professions, by improved financing of education and medicine, and by other methods.

KINNEY, LUCIEN, and DRESDEN, KATHARINE, editors. *Better Learning Through Current Materials*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press. 1949. 200 pp. \$3.00. This volume, written for teachers by teachers, has grown out of a successful experiment and study continued over a period of more than three years, in the use of current materials in the classroom. It presents and evaluates in detail those procedures and materials that have proven themselves valuable in a wide range of participating classes. Groundwork for the book was laid in January, 1946, when the Division of Secondary Education of the California State Department of Education suggested a workshop to explore more intensive use of current material in teaching. The workshop proved so successful that it became the permanent California Council on Improvement of Instruction. Sixteen pages of classroom pictures are featured in the book. These, together with the numerous case reports, show current materials in action.

LAWLER, E. S.; COOPER, D. H.; and CHILDRESS, J. R., editors. *Educational Administration in an Era of Transition*. 1949. 283 pp. \$3.75. This is a report of the proceedings of the second annual Co-operative Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, held in Chicago, July 11-15, 1949, and

sponsored jointly by the University of Chicago and Northwestern University. It contains the eighteen papers given at the formal programs. The number of practical suggestions in this publication should be an aid to all who are striving to meet the needs of the pupils and adults in their respective communities during the current period of challenge.

MATTHEWS, R. D., and AKRAWI, MATTA. *Education in Arab Countries of the Near East*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1949. 608 pp. \$6.00. This volume is primarily a descriptive report of education at all levels in the six countries visited and studied. It will be seen that there is no one system of education or philosophy in the Arab world. The pattern in Lebanon is largely French and American private schools. Iraq has adopted more of the English and American systems. Egypt has built a modern school system upon native foundations and enjoys the prestige of one of the oldest universities in the world—the Mulim al-Azhar—as well as two modern universities. A distinctive Syrian-Arab type of education is developing in Syria, with the deliberate discard of foreign influence. There are signs of awakening in the tribal society of Trans-Jordan. The account of the dual system in effect in Palestine at the time this study was made is significant history.

NOAR, GERTRUDE. *Freedom to Live and Learn*. Philadelphia: Franklin Publishing and Supply Co. 1948. 167 pp. This book presents practical, worth-proven techniques for selecting and developing units of learning in the modern high-school classroom. For the past ten years, teachers working with the author in a large junior high school in a traditional urban community have been attempting to modify their classroom programs as to meet more nearly the needs of the pupils they serve. Their work has not differed from that done by hundreds of teachers in other communities who likewise are pioneering on the growing edge of the profession. To them the development of the experience unit by processes of pupil-teacher planning and evaluation seem to achieve democracy in the classroom and to provide for both the continuous growth of their pupils and for the development of academic and social skills. This book relates the experiences and accomplishments of this group. It is not intended as a blue print. There is no pattern that will fit every situation. Any teacher who attempts to duplicate the work in her classroom will surely fail. Samples are offered. Actual experiences are described in the hope that they will help the teacher to study her specific problem, do her own planning, carefully evaluate her experiments, and get comfort and security from the description of what has been done elsewhere.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH. *Student Teaching*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 433 pp. \$3.75. The text presents a view of teacher education, taking into account publications dealing with practical phases of teacher education and including a vast number of problems and projects contributed by beginning teachers. Special attention is given to problems encountered in the early months of teaching. Four new chapters and much new material have been added in this new second edition. This new material has been geared to the literature on child growth and development, guidance materials, lessons learned in the schools of the armed forces, and audio-visual education. Approximately 100 new illustrations,

improved problem material, and more projects that provide greater experiences with youth in nonclassroom situations have been included.

THUT, I. N., and GERBERICH, J. R. *Foundations of Method for Secondary Schools*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 503 pp. \$4.00. Here is a textbook for general secondary-school methods courses which relates method to the recent developments in the curriculum areas. Part I discusses method as a general plan of procedure selected to achieve a special type of education product. Attention is directed to the kind of education pupils need to prepare for citizenship in a modern democratic society. In Part II, each of the three major teaching plans of methods found in secondary schools today is described in detail: the daily assignment or "recitation" method; the subject-matter unit method; and the experience-unit method. Part III presents several aspects of general methods; namely, the core curriculum in its relation to method, the comprehensive testing program, the guidance aspects of teaching, the problem of discipline, the use of audio-visual aids, and professional improvement through in-service education.

YOUNG, H. M. *Essays On Sex*. Boston 20: Christopher Publishing House. 1949. 277 pp. \$5.00. This volume covers such subjects as: marriage, divorce, the psychology of sex, including the sexual perversions, sociological problems arising out of the problems of sex, also literary essays on some classical authors whose lives and whose books display the presence of some fundamental sexual problem in their lives. In social outlook as well as in medicine, the author was a pioneer of new methods to cope with both new and old situations. He called upon his fellow physicians to adhere to the principles of fundamental honesty and to interpret to young people and their parents the nature of the conflict between social customs and sexual needs and to point out ways in which these hardships can be mitigated.

Books for Pupil and Teacher Use

BARNHART, NANCY. *The Lord Is My Shepherd*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1949. 264 pp. \$4.50. This book with its pictures made in the Holy Land is an introduction to the Bible. The pictures give the setting and the feeling of each story. For example, pictures and text keep pace with the children of Israel in their journeyings, building up to the climax of Mt. Sinai and the Ten Commandments. The stories, carefully selected from the Bible, are simply and briefly told, and follow closely the King James version; at the back of the book is a complete listing of passages from the King James version. This selection by the author is the culmination of several years' work based on careful reading of the Bible in several versions and a visit to Palestine, including the difficult journey through the Desert of Sinai and to the top of Mt. Sinai. The drawings are records of actual experiences; even those of ancient statues and relics were made from actual articles located in Cairo, London, Chicago, or wherever they happened to be.

BARTLETT, R. W. *Security for the People*. Chicago 5: Wilcox and Follett Co. 1949. 311 pp. \$3.75. When Dr. Roland W. Bartlett was asked why he wrote this book, he replied, "To point out the grave dangers that await us if recent trends continue. I am convinced that the truth born in our democracy 170 years ago will

die within the next decade or two unless we crush monopolies of whatever kind or by whom exercised which tend to strait-jacket our economy, prevent expansion of markets, and so cause unemployment. Failure to maintain full employment and full productivity, largely under a system of free enterprise, means a gradual taking over of business by government, inevitably ending in a dictatorship by one of the major groups in our economy." Laymen in the field will find that the book possesses a high degree of readability. At the same time, they will find the author's arguments well substantiated by fact. The purpose of this book is to stimulate thinking on ways of maintaining full employment and high farm income within the framework of a competitive system of free enterprise.

BECHDOLT, JACK. *Greg Sheridan, Reporter*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 190 pp. \$2.50. The story of the ups and downs of a young reporter; of interest both to the career-minded person and to those liking adventure and romance.

BONE, JAMES. *London Echoing*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 173 pp. \$5.00. This, the second book on London written by James Bone and illustrated by his brother, Muirhead Bone, sums up in prose and picture their impressions of nearly half a century of London life. In *The London Perambulator* (1925) James Bone presented the outline of the London he had known in the twenty-four years he had lived and worked there. *London Echoing* fills in much of the outline of the earlier work.

BOWEN, R. S. *Fourth Down*. New York 16: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co. 1949. 192 pp. \$2.00. The story of Johnny Sloan and his football career.

BREWER, J. M., and LANDY, EDWARD. *Occupations Today*. Boston 17: Ginn and Co. 1949. 289 pp. \$2.56. The text is student-centered throughout. The book starts from the pupil, his abilities, surroundings, experiences, and shows possibilities for him in the various occupational fields. Instead of providing an encyclopedic listing of jobs with training, salary, and requisite background, the text shows the pupil how to approach the problem of a job—what things to consider, how to proceed intelligently with education and development toward a vocational goal. The text is divided into four units: Part I, "Your Education and Your Work;" Part II, "Learning About Occupations;" Part III, "Choosing—Starting—Progressing;" and Part IV, "Co-operating for Success."

BRIDGES, E. L. *Uttermost Part of the Earth*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 558 pp. \$10.00 This volume tells of a life which, in hardships faced and dangers overcome, makes most adventure stories seem tame. Further, it is the only record which ever could have been written of the little-known savage races of Tierra del Fuego and their now-vanished way of life. When Lucas Bridges was born on that far-off island in 1874, it was virtually an unknown land. As a lad, young Lucas worked his father's fields, learned from his parents, and had a horde of half-naked Yaghan boys as his playmates. From them he learned their ways, their legends, and their language. In this book is told the full story. Bridges has set forth all he knew about the Ona, their legends, customs, culture, and dreams, precisely as he came to know them. His story is an immeasurably valuable source of knowledge; and, beyond that, it is studded with moments of danger and drama such as few men have met.

- BRINDZE, RUTH. *Boating Is Fun*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1949. 120 pp. \$2.50. This book for boys and girls describes how to handle all kinds of small boats and, because it tells the "why" as well as the "how" of boatsmanship, youngsters and their parents will find it invaluable. But this is far more than a matter-of-fact manual on rowing, paddling, and sailing. Ruth Brindze, an expert boatsman herself, and Kurt Wiese, an inimitable and excellent artist, take the reader out on the water to enjoy the adventure and the fun of being afloat while he is learning the correct and safe way to do things.
- BROCK, RAY. *Art Masterpieces*. New York: Permabooks, 14 W. 19th St. 1949. 128 pp. The book (pocket size) includes reproductions of 32 famous art masterpieces in color with explanatory notes about the painters. For the convenience of readers who may wish to acquire copies of any of these famous pictures, there is a list of the sizes of each print available and their established prices in the final pages of this book.
- BROWN, SAM, editor. *Planning Your Home Workshop*. Chicago 11: Popular Mechanics Press, 1949. 128 pp. \$2.50. This book takes up the problem of specialty shops—tells you what tools will be needed and how they can best be operated. The efficient storage and handling of hardware, supplies, and material are discussed. There are tool cabinets and work benches you can build.
- BUTLER, PIERCE. *The Unhurried Years*. Baton Rouge 3: Louisiana State University Press, 1948. 214 pp. For almost two centuries, Laurel Hill, near Natchez, Mississippi, has been the plantation home of the same family. The Ellis-Farar-Mercer-Butler residents for generations have been prominent in their region as planters, physicians, scholars, or soldiers. From the old plantation records, the author gives here an intimate account of the lives of the people of Laurel Hill. These records reveal the complex, almost self-sufficient economy of a typical Deep South plantation, and the letters and diaries picture the kind of gracious living the planter families of the Old South once knew.
- CHANDOS, DANE. *House in the Sun*. New York 19: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1949. 240 pp. \$3.00. Here, in his house in the sun, the author unfolds his day-to-day adventures as "Senor of the Inn," an amateur *hotelier* who is at the mercy both of his loyal, unpredictable, and often maddening servants and of his equally unpredictable and maddening—though never boring—guests.
- CHASE, M. E. *The Plum Tree*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1949. 98 pp. \$2.00. "This story has no actual setting," says the author. Its appealing and original story, which contains both laughter and tears, "might well have happened at any time and in any place—London or Amsterdam, Rome or Reijavik, Calcutta or Jerusalem." It takes place in a home for aged women; its strange and stirring events occur in a single day; its characters are moving and memorable. The plum tree itself is both an actor and a symbol of gaiety and triumph in the midst of darkness and tragedy.
- CHURCH, VIRGINIA. *Teachers Are People*. Santa Barbara, California: Wallace Hebbard, 1945. 95 pp. \$1.00. The *Christian Science Monitor* states: "Why don't more teachers write about their experiences with children? Why don't we hear more about their day's work, with its hopes, and discouragements, and infinitely

rewarding little successes? Virginia Church has done it, and done it well. In a slender little book of lyrics, she takes us into the high school and into a teacher's heart. If you have ever taught, you will find your own teaching experience mirrored in these verses. As verses they may not be great poetry, but as recaptured teacher experience they are perfect little gems, every one of them."

COOLIDGE, O. E. *Greek Myths*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1949. 256 pp. \$2.75.

This volume is a collection of Greek myths, based on the original sources. It is not just a re-telling of the stories, but a new and vital approach to material which has thrilled readers for hundreds of years.

COTTEN, EMMI. *Clothes Make Magic*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949.

215 pp. \$5.95. The book teaches how to use line, color, and atmosphere in dress to bring out individual beauty and charm. Part I discusses face shapes and problem profiles, as well as a number of special figure problems. Part II deals with color and includes some of the reasons colors can change both the texture and coloring of the skin. Part III deals with atmosphere—self analysis and case histories.

CRANSTON, RUTH. *World Faiths*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 207 pp.

\$3.00. This book is written for people of all faiths and nations, to explain the basic philosophies of seven great religious groups between whom mutual understanding is essential to a united world: Hindu, Buddhist, Confucianist, Taoist, Moslem, Christian, and Jewish. In describing each of these faiths, the book sketches the life of the founder and the principles he taught; relates the application of these principles to social and political life; and shows what the faith has in common with all others, and its special contribution to world culture.

DICKENS, CHARLES. *The Pickwick Papers*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster.

1949. 888 pp. \$5.00. This gift edition of the gayest of the Dickens masterpieces offers the following distinctive features: (1) More than two hundred new illustrations by the English artist Frederick E. Banbery. (2) A 36-page introduction by the editor, Clifton Fadiman, entitled "A Note on Pickwick and Dickens." (3) Three little-known chapters from Dickens' *Master Humphrey's Clock*, in which many of the beloved Pickwickians reappear. (4) The text based on the Nonesuch Press Edition, the most authoritative there is. (5) A full list of the many characters, with short identifying phrases to enhance reading enjoyment. (6) End papers giving a decorative map of the peregrinations of the Pickwick Club.

DUGGAN, LAURENCE. *The Americas*. New York 10: Henry Holt and Co. 1949.

254 pp. \$3.00. This is the book about Latin America that Laurence Duggan had nearly completed at the time of his death. It is the story of an experiment in American co-operation which marked a milestone in international relations within the western hemisphere.

Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service.

1949. 114 pp. \$3.00. This is the first annual edition of *Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms*. This edition marks the initiation of a new service, devoted exclusively to free slidefilms and free slides. It is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of free slidefilms—bringing the compiled information on free slidefilms for immedi-

ate use, within the covers of a single book. For educational as well as financial reasons, free slidefilms from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered and continue to render a valuable contribution to the curriculum. This edition lists 385 titles of slidefilms, 266 of which are silent and 119 of which are sound. Additionally, three acts of free slides are listed. All told, over 19,000 separate frames of pictures, or miniature posters, from 40 different sources are included.

FEINGOLD, S. N. *Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans*. Boston 16: Bellman Publishing Co. 1949. 254 pp. \$6.00. This book can be used in connection with guidance activities wherever general counseling work is conducted as well as individual reference purposes, libraries, social agencies, parent-teachers associations, and many other groups concerned with education of young people. The manuscript for this timely book was written by a qualified expert who has been working on the compilation of the material for nearly three years. It contains complete information on thousands of student aids not usually found in school catalogs, listing important information on nearly twenty million dollars of student aid. A section is devoted to "Planning Your Career" and an Author's Foreword explaining how student assistance aids in vocational planning. This new book just released has three indexes and a table of contents to aid in using this valuable material never before compiled. It contains sample application forms used when securing student assistance for educational problems. Every scholarship, fellowship, and loan write-up includes complete names and addresses of administering agencies and detailed information under four headings: "Qualifications," "Funds Available," "Special Fields of Interest and Information," "Apply for Information or Application to."

FELSEN, H. G. *Bertie Makes a Break*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 192 pp. \$2.50. The story of Bertie's ambition to make money and be a business man. Junior high-school level of reading and interest.

FREEDMAN, E. H. *Conversational Drawing*. New York 16: Farrar, Straus and Co. 1949. 159 pp. \$2.50. This is a new method of drawing—a form of free-hand sketching, a sketch used to help describe some object, a pictorial adjunct to conversation as the title of the book indicated. It is a form which can be used where words fail clearly, quickly, and effectively to describe an object.

GIDE, ANDRE. *Notes on Chopin*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1949. 126 pp. \$3.75. The present work, the first by Gide since he received the Nobel Prize a few years ago, is the fruit of more than sixty years' thought. As early as 1892, Gide announced a study of Chopin and Schumann though he later dropped Schumann. It will not only interest the general music-lover, but will also challenge the musicologist and will be of immediate practical concern to the professional performer, for Gide scathes the virtuosi who persistently misrepresent Chopin.

GOLDEN, F. L. *Jest What the Doctor Ordered*. New York 16: Frederick Fell. 1949. 256 pp. \$2.95. This book contains the distilled essence of every aspect of medical frivolity; from the examining room, the hospital, the drugstore, the dentist's chair, the psychiatrist's couch, and all other fields of medical experience. It contains the cream of the jokes doctors tell each other. The book is illustrated with many cartoons.

- HANFORD, J. H. *John Milton, Englishman*. New York 16: Crown Publishers. 1949. 294 pp. \$3.75. The book stands between factual narrative and interpretive criticism. It not only gives the essentials of Milton's personal life and his historical and ideological background, but it also conveys the true and permanent values in his expression. In Hanford's view, Milton is a poet in whom passion and discipline wage titanic war, a conflict that seeks resolution in philosophy, art, and religion, as well as in practical behavior. The interpretations are supported by ample quotations—the central revealing expressions in Milton's prose and poetry—and these quotations, with the comment, exhibit the range of Milton's eloquence and imagination.
- HARTLEY, PAUL. *How To Paint*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 128 pp. \$3.00. This is a manual for the absolute beginner. It is a preparatory course of great simplicity, economy, and directness on brush handling, color mixing, and elementary picture painting. This book is not intended to make a finished painter of the pupil. Its aim is to give him, without wasting precious time, a working knowledge of the tools he will use later in painting.
- HAYES, HELEN, and KENNEDY, MARY. *Star on Her Forehead*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1949. 255 pp. \$2.50. Through the varying, deeply felt experiences of Elizabeth and Hannah, we come to know truly and graphically the whole stirring pageant of the theatre—how an unknown young aspirant with talent can break into the dramatic circle; the stern training and the constant and arduous work demanded of an actress or actor; the problems of producing a play, in the summer playhouse, on Broadway, and in Europe; the possible interpretations of various roles, both old and new; the ways to perfect one's technique, even through an amateur performance meticulously planned and put on; the great and enduring traditions of the stage.
- HERMAN, WILLIAM. *Hearts Courageous*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 254 pp. \$2.50. This book contains twelve short biographies of persons who achieved in spite of discouragements of the most trying sort. These include Demosthenes, John Milton, Josiah Wedgwood, Ludwig Beethoven, John Kitto, Francis Parkman, Edward L. Trudeau, Robert Louis Stevenson, Charles Steinmetz, Helen Keller, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Glenn Cunningham.
- HESSLER, W. H. *Operation Survival*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1949. 304 pp. \$3.00. This is a discussion of the present-day United States policy of relying upon atomic weapons and heavy bombers to keep America secure and to win the "cold war." Mr. Hessler presents an argument for a realistic foreign and military policy based upon the geographic and economic position of the United States and its allies.
- HOGBEN, LANCELOT. *From Cave Painting to Comic Strip*. New York 22: Chanticleer Press. 1949. 287 pp. \$5.00. Lancelot Hogben, foremost popular expositor of our time, here presents a fascinating synthesis of how man has educated himself, learned to use calendars, alphabets, number systems, mechanical and anatomical drawings, musical notations, pictures, and photographs. He shows how civilizations have forfeited their right to survive when their means of communication proved inadequate. Today, he suggests, is such a time, because the knowl-

edge and judgment of the people are being outstripped by the narrow advance of the specialists. Western culture approaches a climax. The author points the way to the new approaches necessary to halt the decline that threatens.

HOGUE, R. W. *Spindrift*. Asheville. N. C.: Stephens Press. 1949. 72 pp. \$1.50. This is a book of 19 poems written by a school teacher in a humorous and critical but hopeful tone about our times.

HOLBROOK, STEWART, and WARD, LYND. *America's Ethan Allen*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1949. 96 pp. \$2.50. Here for young people is the rousing story of a great and fearless American figure, Ethan Allen, hero of Fort Ticonderoga and one of the first men who saw America's destiny and rebelled against authority from England.

HORN, S. F. *The Robert E. Lee Reader*. Indianapolis 7: Bobbs-Merrill Co. 1949. 542 pp. \$5.00. It is the objective of this book to present a true and well-rounded picture of Robert E. Lee—Lee the man and Lee the American as well as Lee the soldier. Piecing together carefully selected extracts from the voluminous literature on the subject, the editor has produced a continuous narrative of Lee's life, from his boyhood in the old home place, Stratford, to his death in Lexington sixty-three years later.

INGRAM, K. C. *Winning Your Way with People*. New York 18: Whittlesey House. 1949. 272 pp. \$3.00. Here are aids to greater personal happiness and harmony. Here you will gain an insight into why people act the way they do and a new understanding of yourself and those around you. It shows how one can get the most out of life, how he can have a better time in the business of living, by understanding human nature.

JONES, O. G. *Senior Manual for Group Leadership*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts. 1949. 141 pp. \$2.25. Here are dramatized lessons in chairmanship and floor leadership including the simplification of parliamentary procedure. We need competent leaders and in this book will be found an excellent presentation of the basic principles of leadership—the how to do and at the proper time.

KENT, NIAL. *The Divided Path*. New York 22: Greenberg, Publisher. 1949. 447 pp. \$3.00. This is Michael's story—the story of a boy whose conflicting emotions and youthful crises inevitably sent him into the twilight world of homosexuals. It is also the story of Paul and Elinor and of Michael's love for them both. Were it not for Paul's and Michael's deep, compelling need for each other, the path for Michael might never have been divided.

KEY, TED. *Here's Hazel*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 128 pp. \$2.00. A new collection of Hazel drawings from *The Saturday Evening Post*.

LAMBERT, JANET. *Little Miss Atlas*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 190 pp. \$2.25. This is the story of Tippy Parrish in her home in the Bavarian Alps and her sympathy for others outside her unified family circle.

LANDIS, P. H. and J. T. *Social Living*. Boston 17: Ginn and Co. 1949 (revised). 416 pp. \$3.20. A course in social problems which emphasizes and discusses such important phases as goals which society must reach; problems of the family; personality problems of youth; problems of labor and management; problems of

international government; problems of crime; plus an excellent description of normal social patterns. This new book in social problems gives young people an understanding of society and their place in it, of the social forces shaping personality, and of the impact of group experience on their own lives and behavior. It is optimistic and challenging in approach, and it closely relates principles and problems to the daily experience and life plans of youth.

LANGDALE, H. R. *Hank of Lost Nugget Creek*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 187 pp. \$2.50. To be lost on the trail to California; not to know who you were; to be captured by outlaws, and then to escape—these were only a few of the adventures that befell a boy who participated in the great trek westward after gold. Founded on records and accounts of gold rush days, this is a story which young people and their parents, too, will enjoy.

LEARY, FRANCIS *This Dark Monarchy*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 316 pp. \$3.00. This is a story of mounting intensity, characters, and background drawn with power and subtlety, and a strange, eerie beauty in the telling, mark this tale of suspense and terror by a new writer of remarkable gifts.

LECKEY, W. C., compiler and editor. *Your Home and How to Build It Yourself*. Chicago: Popular Mechanics Press, 200 E. Ontario St. 1947. 104 pp. \$3.00. This book is dedicated to the handy man who would like to build his own home with his own hands. He is shown every step and told how to do it in simple, nontechnical language. While prepared largely for this purpose, shop teachers will find it useful as a textbook in itself for shop classes. It contains not only descriptive material but also well-presented pictures (many of them in color) and diagrams of the numerous steps in the building process of a house costing around \$7,100 in the Chicago area.

LEOPOLD, ALDO. *A Sand County Almanac*. New York 11: Oxford University Press. 1949. 240 pp. \$3.50. In this book have been gathered the best of what might well be called the author's prose poems. The essays are grouped in three parts. Part I, "Sand County Almanac," is concerned with what Leopold did and saw at his week-end refuge on a Wisconsin farm. Part II, "Sketches Here and There," recounts some of the episodes in his life that taught him gradually, and sometimes painfully, that few shared his concern for preservation of the land. Part III, "The Upshot," expresses in logical terms some of the ideas whereby Leopold, as a dissenter, rationalized his dissent. In them he shows that the basic fallacy in conservation is the attempt to define it as merely good economics when it is much more than that: it is the extension of ethics from people to land. And until we love and respect the land, there is no chance for it to survive the impact of mechanized land-use or for use to reap from it the esthetic harvest it is capable of contributing to culture through science.

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- MAROTTA, GIUSEPPE. *The Treasure of Naples*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 254 pp. \$3.00. The author portrays the people of Naples, with a keen sense of the drama and gentle humor as one of them.
- MARSH, I. T., and EHRE, EDWARD, editors. *Best Sports Stories*, 1949. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 368 pp. \$3.00. This fifth annual collection of the best sports writing and sports pictures covers every major field of athletics. The editors have selected the best of newspaper and magazine sports writing, as well as the year's best action shots by news photographers.
- MARSH, I. T., and EHRE, EDWARD, editors. *Best Sports Stories*, 1949. and Co. 1949. 285 pp. \$2.75. In Istanbul, cradle of international intrigue, the struggle between Turkish and American agents and a mysterious Moscow-trained American renegade began. The situation called for a man of Major Hugh North's unique talents. But to the horror of his friends, North apparently had suffered a complete crackup and had turned traitor. He became absorbed in the polyglot life of the city and to all appearances joined the boys from the Kremlin who, the rumor went, were occupied in forging a terrible new weapon—bacteriological warfare.
- MCCROSKY, T. F.; BLESSING, C. A.; and MCKEEVER, J. R. *Surging Cities*. Boston: Greater Boston Development Committee, 80 Federal St. 1948. 296 pp. This is a civic textbook about Boston for secondary-school pupils. It is divided into two parts: "Urban Planning Problems and Solutions" and "Greater Boston Acts for Tomorrow." A generous grant from the Edward A. Filene Good Will Fund, Inc., made possible the publication of this book. The material presented comes within the scope of education for democracy. The book is primarily aimed at developing among the young citizens of Greater Boston a better understanding of planning problems and at encouraging a broader participation in their solution.
- MEDLIN, C. J. *School Yearbook, Editing and Management*. Manhattan: The Kansas State College Press. 1949. 112 pp. The staff of the school yearbook often takes over the job with little or no experience in book publishing. The members are faced with a multitude of problems which must be solved quickly and intelligently if the venture is to be successful. The yearbook adviser, school press associations, yearbook conventions, magazines for student journalists, and concerns producing school annuals give valuable assistance in solving the staff's problems. Often, however, such assistance is not immediately obtainable and valuable time is wasted. The author hopes this book will supplement the aids mentioned above and give the staff the information and suggestions it needs the moment it needs them. The aim of this book is a discussion of all basic problems involved in publishing a school annual. It is designed as a handbook for advisers, editors, managers, and all members of the yearbook staff. It is planned also as a textbook in colleges and universities giving courses in supervision of school publications.
- Men Who Make Your World*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 319 pp. \$3.50. The story of twenty-five men brought together for the first time by a panel of present and past foreign correspondents who are members of the Overseas Press

Club of America, the world's largest organized body of foreign correspondents. Each of the writers is an authority in his field and on his man. They have treated their subject from a global angle. Thus, this book is a comprehensive, rounded picture of men and events today. The men told about are: Harry S. Truman, Dean Acheson, Douglas MacArthur, Robert Oppenheimer, Paul Hoffman, Walter Reuther, Josef Stalin, Viacheslav Molotov, Lavrenti Beria, Paul-Henri Spaak, Clement Attlee, Winston Churchill, Charles De Gaulle, Thorez and Duclos, Tito of Yugoslavia, Pope Pius XII, Francisco Franco, Antonio Salazar, Juan Peron, Chaim Weizman, King Abdullah, Jawaharlal Nehru, Mao Tse-Tung, and Jan Christian Smuts.

MIZWA, S. P., editor. *Frederic Chopin (1810-1949)*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1949. 126 pp. \$3.00. This centennial volume, published on the anniversary of Chopin's death, is a tribute to a great artist, pointing out his place in the history of music, as seen by critic, artist, and composer in the middle of the twentieth century. To give the reader a first-hand glimpse of that great genius and his creative philosophy, the book presents a revealing series of Chopin's own comments—never before published—on music, musicians, himself, and his works, extracted from his letters to Delfina Potocka. In addition to Dr. Howard Hanson's evaluation of Chopin's pertinence today, there is a brief summing up of his life by Stephen P. Mizwa and an analysis of his indebtedness to the musical tradition of Poland.

NANO, F. C. *The Land and People of Sweden*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1949. 128 pp. \$2.50. This is the eleventh book in an important series designed to introduce American young people to the lands and the people of our foreign neighbors. Sweden is presented as a country lovely to live in or visit. From arrival at Malmo or Stockholm, with the first delightful experience of becoming acquainted with the fascinating streets, buildings, and people of a new country, the author leads the reader through the varied beauties of the provinces, from Skane in the south to Lapland beyond the Arctic Circle. There is a chapter on Swedish history, highlighting great events and personalities from Viking days to the present, with a clear picture of modern Sweden's experiment in modified socialistic government.

NELSON, JOSEPH. *Backwoods Teacher*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1949. 288 pp. \$3.00. Joseph Nelson and Sally, his wife, came into Big Piney on foot. Big Piney was a community in the Ozarks, a region sometimes referred to as the last seed-bed of Anglo-Saxon culture in America, and the Nelsons went there because he had heard a teacher was needed and he wanted the job. The book is the wonderfully funny story of their first year at Big Piney. With a loving hand, the author depicts the characters and lives of the friends they made. There were solid citizens as well as the other kind—austere, progressive people with a real interest in their community.

NEWCOMB, ELLSWORTH. *Stars Above*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton. 1949. 191 pp. \$2.25. The story of Joan and her answers to some of the problems which confronted her—or for that matter, those which confront most teen-age youth.

PERELMAN, S. J. *Listen to the Mocking Bird*. New York: Simon and Schuster. 1949. 161 pp. \$2.95. If you are not in the habit of laughing, then don't read this book.

If you are not in the habit of reading, you can still look at the pictures and get a laugh. Here is a new collection of the author's work.

POSSELT, ERIC, editor. *World's Greatest Christmas Stories*. Chicago 1: Ziff-Davis Publishing Co. 1949. 465 pp. \$3.50. This volume is a treasury of holiday joy from twenty-three nations—a heart-warming tribute to the Christmas spirit. Here thirty-nine of the world's most famous authors have been brought together to tell again, each in his own way, of peace on earth and the brotherhood of man. The majority of these stories have never before appeared in an anthology, many are here translated into English for the first time.

Rand McNally-Cosmopolitan World Atlas. Chicago 5: Rand McNally and Co. 1949. 352 pp. \$12.50. In what is probably the most costly venture in atlas publishing history, this company has invested almost one-half a million dollars in this atlas. A staff of experts of this nearly 100-year-old firm has worked over 125,000 hours during an eight-year period to produce this atlas, which is not only the first new one since the war, but also the first new one in more than a decade.

The traditional concept of atlases has been changed by the Rand McNally editors to conform to world conditions. In the new atlas, the "new look" includes not only many production improvements, but also a real "world approach." For instance, foreign maps precede American maps, reversing the usual methods, but emphasizing the international approach. In the foreign section, "regional" maps are used to show as a unit areas that are closely knit—such as the Benelux nations (Belgium, Netherlands, and Luxembourg) which are a natural unit, even though they are separate countries. And thumbnail "key" maps in the corner of every map page clearly indicate the position of the area mapped in relation to the rest of the country or surrounding countries.

In its 352 pages, the *Cosmopolitan Atlas* includes 111 pages of completely new multi-colored maps covering the entire world, as well as over 60 pages of supplementary material. The index includes over 95,000 entries and fills 174 pages. The longest word in the index contains 45 letters. It is a lake in Massachusetts—Chargoggagoggmanchauggogoggchaubunagungamaugg, with pronunciation at the reader's risk. It is thought to mean, loosely, "You fish on your side; I'll fish on my side, and nobody fish in middle."

Many Americans realize that their school knowledge of the world has become increasingly inadequate since World War II changed previous concepts; and they find older atlases are frequently inadequate for present needs. The new atlas has, therefore, been developed with the needs of modern readers in mind. While the solar system, climate, and resources haven't changed as frequently as national boundaries, the new scientific knowledge about them has, and it is fully indicated and diagrammed in the new atlas. Other features include in addition to maps: informational tables, including air and steamship distance tables; climatic and economic tables; political data; world facts and comparisons, as well as geographical and historical information and glossaries.

Completely new and strikingly beautiful, the maps reveal a modern picture of today's world. Excellent color, extra-legible print, many detailed metropolitan-area maps, and one comprehensive index are some of the features that make this atlas one of the finest, most usable references that the company has ever published.

It measures 11½ by 14¼ inches, includes 352 pages; is printed in five colors and bound in buckram; weigh 6½ pounds and is 1½ inches thick. Despite increasing production costs, the publisher has tried to make it one of the finest values in reference books, and believes it to be among the most handsome and authoritative volumes they have ever issued.

Current events unfold in an easy pattern as you study this atlas to interpret world news. With emphasis on vital regional areas rather than on the traditional national divisions, these maps have been especially designed to give the reader the background he needs for an understanding and interpretation of today's complicated world problems. Thousands of facts can be found in this atlas—many of them little known and startling. For example, one little realizes that the air distance, using the great circle, from Buenos Aires, Argentina, to Shanghai, China, is 12,197 statute miles and the distance by steamship from Manila in the Philippines to Hamburg, Germany, is 16,678 statute miles; or that Afghanistan has only 5 miles of railroads, 5,000 miles of roads, one passenger automobile for every 26,667 persons, and one radio for every 6,000 of its population; while the United States has 226,438 miles of railroads, 3,012,371 miles of roads, one passenger car for every 5 persons, and one radio for every 2 persons of its population.

RICE, A. H. *The Official Magazine*. Chicago: Nation's Schools. 1949. 258 pp. Here is an essential working tool for which editors of official publications of many kinds have long felt a need. Most of the editors of trade, professional, religious, and fraternal publications are immersed in editorial responsibilities without any extensive preparation or apprenticeship in the field of journalism. Gradually they develop skill in the techniques of editing and acquire a kit of working tools useful in the mechanics of magazine production. At the same time they are compelled to feel their way toward policies consistent with their special functions and with their relationships to the supporting organizations.

This publication throws a steady light on the search for sound, consistent editorial policy. The study on which this report is based grew out of years of experience and observation. It came to fruition as a dissertation for a doctor's degree at the University of Michigan. It assembles the ideas and opinions of a jury of 225 editors. Editors will find in this treatise twenty-six accepted principles which will help them to determine the functions and purposes of their publications; the desirable relationships of the editor to the editorial board and to the official's and membership of the organization; and the principles governing budgeting, advertising, circulation, and the selection of editorial content.

RONNE, FINN. *Antarctic Conquest*. New York 19: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1949. 319 pp. \$5.00. This is the story of Commander Finn Ronne's fifteen-month expedition to the Antarctic in 1946-1948, a milestone in a distinguished career of polar exploration. His group consisted of twenty-three members, only eight of whom had ever been to sea. In a converted Navy tug, they sailed from Beaumont, Texas, to the frozen South, there to carry on scientific studies and hazardous explorations which, it developed, were record breaking in terms of achievement. Graphically, and always modestly, Commander Ronne describes the feats of daring, ingenuity, and fortitude that resulted in the contribution of so many vital facts important to the sum of human knowledge.

ROTH, L. V.; HOBBS, S. M.; and GREENLEAF, W. J. *Living in the Peoples' World*. Chicago 6: Laidlaw Brothers. 1949. 767 pp. \$2.76. This book is a social studies text which gives high-school boys and girls a perspective of the world in which they live and the part they may play in it. This text is divided into three parts. The first part, THE WORLD, consists of four units, "The Peoples of the World" has as its theme the understanding of the peoples of the world through acquaintance with the different races, languages, nations, and cultures and through familiarity with their geographic and social environment. "Your Global World" presents an air-minded world based on modern polar projections and aviation charts. "Economic Resources and International Co-operation" takes up the important resources of the different countries and shows the interdependence among nations. "Transportation, Communication, and World Trade" explains the development of transportation and communication from the oxcart and smoke signals to aviation and television.

The second part, THE NATION, which consists of three units, is an introduction to our national economic system and an explanation of the structure of the Federal government. "Consumer All" deals with the American economic system and the problems which the consumer faces. "Production and Exchange" deals with production on the farm and in the factory and with the exchange of goods and services. "Government and Economics" explains the relation between the Federal government and our economic system and describes the services performed by government today. A chapter on the structure of the Federal government provides valuable information in practical civics.

The third part, THE INDIVIDUAL, helps to prepare the student to take his place in the civic and economic life of the nation. First, he is helped to see how he fits into the scheme of things as one who can contribute to the good life about him. Here again he finds practical training in civics. Then he is taught to plan for the future. He is shown how to understand himself in the light of modern scientific analysis and then to develop his potentialities to the utmost. He is given an opportunity to study the many different types of occupations. And, finally, he is shown how to select the vocation for which he is best suited.

SARGEANT, WINTHROP. *Geniuses, Goddesses, and People*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 317 pp. \$3.50. This is a book filled with marvelous stories of "geniuses, goddesses, and people," known by a writer who has had unusual opportunities to study them close up. Good stories stand out on every page.

SCHACTER, H. W. *Kentucky on the March*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 217 pp. \$3.00. This is the story of Kentucky and what it is doing. It is a blueprint of how to go about doing the things that almost any community needs done. It emphasizes the part the individual plays in citizenship affairs, whether they be local, state, or nation. It is the story of how a number of divergent groups, each with its own special interest, learned for the first time to work together for the good of all—and found that everybody gained by it.

This book is, above all, a vigorous affirmation that democracy can be made to work in any community if the people of that community want it to work. It is written in the hope that people in other communities may come to the same conclusion and try it. It aims to suggest some of the methods by which it may

be done. This book, therefore, is intended to suggest not *the* method but *a* method of helping to make democracy effective in a community, whether that be a neighborhood, a town, a city, a state, or even a nation. Each community will have to find and develop the methods best suited to its own particular needs.

SHEPARD, ODELL, editor. *The Best of Hudson*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 317 pp. \$4.00. As the title indicates, this is a collection of some of Hudson's best prose, made available for the first time in a single volume.

SMITH, H. A. *We Went Thataway*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co. 1949. 256 pp. \$2.75. This is Smith riding more hilariously than ever before, with the same flair for the eccentric which has distinguished all his books, plus a mellow, philosophical humor which will gain him a firm place in the ranks of American humorists.

SMITH, I. R. T. "*Dear Mr. President . . .*" New York 18: Julian Messner. 1949. 238 pp. \$3.00. This is the story of 50 years in the White House. It is the highly entertaining memoirs of the man whose job it was to read the Presidents' mail during the half-century from McKinley to Truman—the revealing, often humorous story of the little-known White House official who was paid for being nosey.

SPENCE, HARTZELL. *Happily Ever After*. New York 18: Whittlesey House, 1949. 259 pp. \$3.00. This is the humorous and at the same time inspiring story of an American couple's search for a new way of life. Hartzell Spence, author of *One Foot in Heaven*, and his wife Margaret decide that country life alone will bring them the kind of family happiness for which they have been searching. This is the story of how they took the long way around to get it.

STEWART, G. R. *Earth Abides*. New York 22: Random House. 1949. 373 pp. \$3.00. Try to imagine the human race almost entirely wiped out while the rest of the world—its animals, plants, and roads and buildings and still-spinning dynamos—continues to function as best it can without the aid of man. Suppose the outbreak of a lethal new disease has destroyed all but a few of our species. How would they accommodate themselves to this new and unforeseen circumstance? To what use could the forces of nature and the contrivances of man be put to maintain life and renew social institutions for the survivors? Would the physical and psychological problems at first be simplified and, then, as a new society evolves, become as complicated as our own?

Into this realm of speculation George R. Stewart ventures with bold imagination. To many, his new novel will appeal as science fiction of a superior order. It will attract others as a heartening tale of the ingenuity of man in the face of overwhelming disaster. Still others will be moved by its romantic story. And there will be those who will be held in fascination by its historical and scientific lore and its daring conjectures.

STRODE, HUDSON. *Sweden, Model for a World*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1949. 411 pp. \$5.00. With this book, one of the most perceptive writers of our time adds another distinguished volume to his popular interpretations of foreign lands and their peoples—a volume indispensable to travelers planning to visit Sweden. In this book, the author gives a vivid account of a nation which retained its neutrality during two wars and which, with quiet determination,

strengthened the way of life that has made it a model of social progress and orderly government in the confused world of today. Mr. Strode's portrait of Sweden is projected in full dimension—historical, geographical, cultural, economic, and psychological. In order to understand the present, he sketches in the past from Gustavus Vasa to Gustav V, first monarch to accept a labor government. Informal interviews and character sketches and intimate glimpses of daily life help us to get at the core of Swedish psychology and temperament.

STUART, JESSE. *The Thread That Runs So True*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1949. 293 pp. \$3.00. Jesse Stuart was seventeen years old, his school was a dilapidated one-room structure in Lonesome Valley, Kentucky, and he taught fifty-four classes. Some of his pupils were older and bigger than he was, and discipline was occasionally a matter of fists between pupil and teacher. This was the mountain region of Kentucky—a land where boys and girls walked ten miles barefooted to school, where a man often carried a gun to law court and where grandmothers laid aside their long-stemmed pipes to dance with flying feet to the tune of a fiddle. Teaching here was never dull. There were children who knew more than their instructors—Budge Waters, for one, could read a page in a book and repeat it practically word for word—and sometimes the teacher was asked to judge disputes which otherwise would have been settled permanently with a shotgun. This is the story of the mountain people in their tight little communities—race of people whose lives are frugal but whose spirits are never overcome by that frugality.

TERRETT, COURTENAY. *The White Cheyenne*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1949. 311 pp. \$3.00. There were plenty of adventures for Denny—including a fight with an eagle, a dangerous encounter with a ruthless villain and, above all, the capture and secret training of his beautiful black horse, Shinola.

THOMAS, DAVID, editor. *Teen-Age Dog Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1949. 256 pp. \$2.50. Man's best friend has ever been the pal of the growing girl and growing boy. The affection of a boy for his dog, the loyalty of a dog for his young mistress has been the theme of many a story of the growing-up age. In this volume there has been assembled an outstanding collection of stories specially prepared for the teen-agers. World famous authors, such as Booth Tarkington, Margaret Cousins, Morley Callaghan, Betty Cavanna, Albert Payson Terhune, Jim Kjelgaard, and others too numerous to mention in this small space, have contributed the best of their writings suitable for this particular age group. Here are stories about almost every type of dog from the burly cur to the noble collie of Albert Payson Terhune's story, "The Yule Miracle." These stories are all written in the modern manner and the incidents described are all within the ken or imagination of the reader. Here are humor and pathos, laughter and heart throbs. But these are all thought-provoking tales—stimulating, absorbing, and exciting.

THORSETH, MATTHEA. *The Color of Ripening*. Seattle 1: Superior Publishing Co. 1949. 243 pp. \$3.00. Olav Brekke was a lusty, young Norwegian whose love for Mother Norway gave way to a new love: the dream and promise of America. Restless, vigorous, adventuresome, he decided to be a logger on the Pacific Coast. There, in the West, Olav was swept up by the Wobbly movement. There were

two other driving forces in his life: Sybil, impulsive, provocative, amoral, who "should have stayed home with her dolls and playhouse," and Marxana, aloof, beautiful, headstrong, whose background was mysterious and suspicious. The climax of the story is the "Everett Massacre," when the Verona attempted to land in Everett, Washington, on "Bloody Sunday," November 5, 1916.

VANCE, MARGUERITE. *The Lees of Arlington*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton. 1949. 160 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of Mary and Robert E. Lee, written for the young reader.

WEBB, H. B. L. *Mary Webb, An Anthology*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton. 1940. 253 pp. Published and unpublished work by Mary Webb are woven together in this anthology which represents every aspect of her achievement. Poems, articles, and excerpts from her novels, short stories, and essays are all included. There are poems here which have not previously appeared; and contributions, signed and unsigned, which Mary Webb made to papers like *The Spectator*, *The Nation*, and *The English Review* are here assembled in book form for the first time.

Webster's Geographical Dictionary. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co. 1949. 1352 pp. This volume is a new quick-reference source of geographical information covering all the important places of the world. It is thumb-notched indexed and has more than 40,000 entries and 177 maps. It includes not only present-day names but also important ones of Biblical times, ancient Greece and Rome, medieval Europe, and World War I and II. The comprehensive scope of this book may be judged by the fact that all incorporated cities, towns, and villages in the United States and Canada with 1500 or more population are included.

WELLS, H. G. *The Outline of History*. Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing Co. 1949. 1312 pp. In the years since its first publication, Wells' *Outline of History* has established itself as one of the really great books. A brilliant survey of man's progress from the earliest struggles of the cave man through the momentous events of the present, it is, first and foremost, very readable. It is moving, accurate, and authentic; it is magnificent in conception, scope, and treatment; it interprets the past and presages the future; and in itself, it is a long step toward a comprehensive general education. Familiarity with what it tells is essential to a cultured understanding of the modern world and the forces that have molded it. This, the latest edition, contains certain corrections made by Wells himself. Other new sections, which Wells had only roughly outlined at the time of his death, have been rewritten by Raymond Postgate, who has brought the book up to date through World War II.

WESTERFIELD, HARGIS. *Words Into Steel*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 96 pp. \$2.75. This collection of poems is notable for its classic, rather than contemporary, approach to war. Here is not the bitter, self-pitying, or tongue-in-cheek man against war, but rather a reversion to the "Arms and the Man I Sing" approach which unashamedly finds glory, honor, and high companionship in combat.

WIERZYNSKI, CASIMIR. *The Life and Death of Chopin*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster. 1949. 473 pp. \$3.95. Almost a hundred years after the death of Chopin, there came to light, in Poland, a series of letters written by the composer to his

first mistress—the beautiful, talented, glamorous, but somewhat promiscuous Countess Delphine Potocka. Casimir Wierzynski, the distinguished Polish poet, is the first biographer of Chopin to have access to this correspondence. The biographer gives stress to the importance of Chopin's early life, the Polish period, which influenced the composer profoundly all the remaining years of his life. Here is an intimate picture of the family, the countryside, the education, the folk music, the history, and the social customs of early nineteenth-century Poland which made the composer what he was, as man and musician.

WILSON, D. C. *Prince of Egypt*. Philadelphia: Westminster Press. 1949. 424 pp. \$3.50. This is a tale of mighty adventure in history's most fabulous age. The Egypt of this book is the empire of the pharaohs over 3,000 years ago—a civilization ancient even then, glittering with unbelievable luxury, with strange and timeless rites; filled with unendurable poverty for the millions who created its wealth out of the mud of the holy River Nile.

WILSON, W. E. *Abe Lincoln of Pigeon Creek*. New York: 18: Whittlesey House. 1949. 298 pp. \$3.00. In this novel based on authentic history, the author has drawn in new perspective the character of the youth, Abe Lincoln. He sows the turmoil, the indecision, the moments of wild hate and intense love, the pranks and the laughter of youth that gradually shaped Lincoln the man. From its pages there emerge those aspects of Lincoln's life and character which, in his formative years, almost turned him from his historic course, yet at the same time foreshadowed the man who won through to his great destiny.

WYNNER, EDITH, and LLOYD, GEORGIA. *Searchlight on Peace Plans*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 621 pp. \$7.50. Here is the most complete collection of specific peace plans ever assembled. Written with sound scholarship yet without stuffiness, this book provides in the simplest and most concise form all relevant theoretical plans and practical attempts at international organization from earliest times to the present. The authors have assembled some two hundred specific proposals to unite nations, dating from 1306 to 1949, including all the most discussed current ones. Through unique organization of the material, several million words on the subject have been condensed into a single book—shorter than many of the individual plans. This was accomplished through careful analysis, classification, and charting, under about thirteen important headings, of plans drafted since 1914. The essentials of each plan are brought into sharp focus and stripped of subjective literary flourishes and oratory. The concise and uniform organization of the charts will help the reader to compare the different plans and to form his own opinion on the merits of each proposal. Theoretical plans from 1306 to 1914 are described briefly, giving their essential features.

Pamphlets for Pupil and Teacher Use

American Academy of Political and Social Science, Publications of the. Philadelphia 4: 3817 Spruce St., *The Annals*.

Critical Issues and Trends in American Education. Sept., 1949. \$2.00.

Government Finance in a Stable and Growing Economy. Nov., 1949. \$2.00.

World Government. July, 1949. \$2.00.

- American Education and International Tensions.* Washington 6, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 54 pp. 25c. (Discounts for quantity orders: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10-99, 25%; 100 or more, 33 1/3%.) Considers these and other incisive questions penetratingly: What are the significant forces operating in the world today? How can the schools prepare youth to face and cope with a world of continuing international tensions? How can schools strengthen their programs of education for democracy? A *Study Guide* to the report is available without cost to promote group study.
- America's Famous Festivals.* Cleveland, Ohio: Greyhound Corporation. 1949. Free. A series of lesson plans on festivals of America and a wall or shelf display of nationally known annual festivals in color.
- Assistance to Greece and Turkey.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1949. 4f pp. 20c. The eighth quarterly report of the Department of State on military assistance to an economic rehabilitation of Greece and Turkey. Statistical tables, graphs, and pictures add to the report of operations, procurement, construction program, etc., of the American mission.
- BARKER, ERNEST. *The Parliamentary System of Government.* New York: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1949 (Rev.). 40 pp. An eminently qualified student of history and writer of political science traces the development of representative government in Northern Europe and its diffusion beyond the boundaries of empires, showing that freedom is a joint duty.
- BARICH, D. W. *How to Discipline Your Children.* New York: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th St. 1949. 32 pp. 20c. Outlines some general principles applicable at any age.
- BOYD, GERTRUDE. *Appraising and Developing Reading Skills.* Laramie: Bureau of Educ. Research, Coll. of Educ., Univ. of Wyo. 1949. 41 pp. 50c. After identifying general problems in reading and diagnosing reading difficulties, a lengthy chapter on procedures for remedial instruction follows. Appended is a selected bibliography. Most helpful is a comprehensive list of tests used in appraising and analyzing reading deficiencies.
- A Catalog of Selected Publications.* New York 20: Circulation Section, British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1949. 19 pp. Free. A selected list of publications issued free of charge—both booklets in popular style and technical reference works by specialists. Other catalogs on official publications of the Crown, filmstrips and pictorial material, and 16-mm. sound films are available.
- CHERRINGTON, B. M. *The Nations Meet at the Ancient Crossroads of the World.* Denver: Social Science Foundations, Univ. of Denver. 1949. 26 pp. A report of the Third Annual Session of the General Conference of UNESCO in Lebanon.
- Church, State, and Education.* New York: The American Jewish Committee. 1949. 15 pp. Mimeo. A selected bibliography of books, pamphlets, and periodicals containing material on the historical background, current developments, and a cross-section of opinion on the question of state, church, and education.
- The College Entrance Examination Board Supplement to the 1949 Handbook.* Princeton, N. J.: THE CEEB, P. O. Box 592. 1949. 106 pp. Supplementary information on the changes in terms of admission to the member colleges for 1950.

COOPER, D. H., and PETERSON, O. E. *Schools for Young Adolescents*. Chicago: Superintendents' Study Club. 1949. 110 pp. An exploration of the question of the justification of the junior high school as a separate unit of education.

COVERT, TIMON. *Selected Bibliography on School Finance*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1949. 47 pp. 20c. A comprehensive classified and annotated list of published materials dealing with topics such as bonds, insurance, transportation costs, emergency funds, costs vs. efficiency, legislation, safeguards, equalization of costs, apportionment, budgeting, etc.

Denoyer-Geppert Co., Publications of. Chicago 40: 5235 Ravenswood Ave. Leaflets which have enjoyed wide popularity with school people as part of in-service training work, summer-school sessions, methods courses, etc. Available to administrators on request.

BOWMAR, STANLEY. *The Selection and Use of Maps*.

COLBY, M. M. *Introducing Pupils to Globes and Wall Maps. Great Circle Distances*.

MILLER, W. S. *The How of Map and Globe Use*.

MILLER, W. S. *Visual Teaching Aids—Fact and Fancy*.

SAALE, C. W. *Instruction in Map Use Should Be Increased*.

Suggestions for Use of the Slated Outline Globe.

Suggested Map Use by Grades.

Suggested Globe Use by Grades.

Summary of Projection Characteristics—Wall Maps in Common Use.

Twelve Outstanding Features of New Denoyer-Geppert Physical-Political World Map S79p Americas Centered.

DIEKOFF, A. E. *A Summary Report of a Five-Year Experiment in Guidance and Counseling*. Detroit: Board of Education. 1949. 23 pp. Data and implications of counselor-pupil ratio, per capita expenditure for guidance, decentralization of services, co-ordination with youth agencies, articulation, follow-up, health provisions, etc.

Director of Members (American Educational Theatre Association). Stanford, Calif.: Speech and Drama Dept., Stanford Univ. 1949. 76 pp. Both an alphabetical listing of the AETA membership and a geographical and institutional index to members.

Dismissal of Mitchell Ferguson—Preliminary Report. Washington 6, D. C.: NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 8 pp. A review of the case of a dismissal of the Supervising Principal of the Sebring, Florida, Schools after thirteen years of service and while President of the Florida Education Association. The investigating committee was comprised of three principals from neighboring states and a Staff Representative for the Tenure and Academic Freedom Committee of the NEA.

DREESE, MITCHELL. *How to Get the Job*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Ave. 1949. 48 pp. Single copies, 60c; 15 or more, 50c; 100 or more, 35c; 1,000 or more, 25c. In the teen-ager's own language—how to look for a job, write a letter of application, come through an interview successfully, adjust to the job situation, and change jobs. (Another in Life Adjustment Series, which

has 19 titles of interest to youth, parent, and counselor. Sample kit of 19 booklets available for \$7.60.)

Economic and Social Problems in the United Nations. Washington 25, D. C.: Div. of Public Liaison, Office of Public Affairs, Dept. of State. Oct., 1949. 10 pp. Four problem areas—Food, Health and Welfare, Fiscal and Monetary, and Transport and Communication—are presented with documentation and suggested source material procurable largely from the Department of Public Information of the UN at Lake Success, New York. The July, 1949, issue deals with main lines of activity in world scientific, educational, and cultural co-operation.

Employment Outlook in Railroad Occupations. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1949. 52 pp. 30c. One of the series of occupational studies prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Dept. of Labor for use in vocational counseling.

Facing the Fact of Atomic Energy. Lincoln, Neb.: State Dept. of Public Instruction. 1949. 24 pp. A unit developed to aid high-school teachers in providing suitable learning experiences concerning the social significance of atomic energy.

Fifth Report to Congress of the Economic Co-operation Administration. Washington 25, D. C.: ECA. 1949. 141 pp. A view of the ECA programs in Europe and the Far East, the progress of recovery in the war-devastated countries, and the relation of ECA and U. S. economy.

Financial Data. Los Angeles: City Board of Education, Budget Division. 1949. 37 pp. A pocket edition of facts and figures in condensed form for school personnel and public. Data on assessed valuations of school property, daily attendance, cafeteria, enrollment, *per capita* costs, salary schedules, tax rates, etc.

FINE, BENJAMIN. *The Springfield Plan.* New York 3: Menorah Assn., 63 Fifth Ave. 1944. 20 pp. A reprint from the *Menorah Journal* by the Education Editor of the *New York Times* on the subject of education against intolerance and prejudice.

Folklore. Chicago 10: Office of Curriculum Research, F. E. Compton and Co., 1000 N. Dearborn St. 1949. Two articles reprinted from *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*—"American Folklore and Its Old-World Backgrounds" and "Following Folk Tales Around the World." Of special value to librarians and teachers of literature.

Fourth National Conference on Citizenship. Washington 6, D. C.: NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 112 pp. 50c, with NEA discounts: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10-99, 25%; 100 or more, 33 1/3%. Addresses and digests of conference proceedings, May 14-18, 1949, showing the jobs of responsible American citizens and the role of the public schools in developing American citizens.

General Motors Corporation, Publications of. Detroit 2.

ABC's of Hand Tools. 1945. 48 pp. A clever exposition of the proper selection and use of tools to aid in the training of mechanics. Primitive Pete cartoons add to the practical lecture.

American Battle for Abundance. 1947. 100 pp. A story of mass production. Illustrated in color.

The Automobile User's Guide. 9th Edition. Rev. 64 pp. 196 practical suggestions on how to get the most out of a car and prolong its life. Answers such ques-

tions as "Why should you idle a hot engine before turning off the ignition?" for any make or model.

Chemistry and Wheels. 1938. 24 pp. Technical data on gasoline and combustion in popularized form.

Diesel—The Modern Power. 1944. 36 pp. A graphic presentation of the development of Diesel power.

Electricity and Wheels. 1939. 32 pp. A chronology of electricity from ancient to modern times, with emphasis on transformation of electrical energy and its application in the automotive industry.

Metallurgy and Wheels. 1944. 48 pp. The part metallurgy has played in making possible today's automobile.

Optics and Wheels. 1940. 32 pp. A story of lighting from the primitive torch to the sealed beam headlamp.

Power Goes to Work. 1945. 136 pp. An introduction to the transmission of power on land, in the air, and at sea. Diagrams in color.

A Power Primer. 1944. 115 pp. An introduction to the internal combustion engine in automobile, aircraft, and Diesel. Elementary facts bridging the gap between the theoretical textbook and the detailed practical repair manual.

Research Looks to New Horizons. 1939. 32 pp. A peep inside the laboratories under the direction of C. F. Kettering, where miracles of lubrication, body design, etc., are effected and where problems of friction, distillation, finish, etc., are studied with modern scientific equipment.

Short Stories of Science and Invention. 126 pp. A collection of C. F. Kettering's five-minute intermission talks over a period of two years on the Sunday General Motors Symphony of the Air over the NBC network.

Transportation Progress. 1946. 54 pp. A story of self-propelled vehicles from the earliest times down to the automobile through four decades of General Motors contributions.

We Drivers. 1949. 36 pp. A series of brief discussions on driving, dedicated to the safety, comfort, and pleasure of the motoring public.

When the Wheels Revolve. 1944. 20 pp. How engineering and research have contributed to the vast system of automotive transportation.

The Good School. Augusta, Me.: State Dept. of Educ. 1948. 101 pp. 75c. Seeks to develop a good school for individual children. The work of teachers.

GRACE, A. G. *Basic Elements of Educational Reconstruction in Germany.* Washington 6, D. C.: Commission on the Occupied Areas, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Pl. 1949. 14 pp. A discussion of the zone-wide conference of American education officers held during the summer of 1948 in Berchtesgaden. The commission, which has been supported by grants of the Rockefeller Foundation, was established to develop and strengthen sound approaches to cultural and educational affairs, stressing mutual institutional and organizational interchange and promoting activities that will encourage the development of democracy in the occupied countries.

Guidance Index. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Ave. Monthly, Sept.-May. 16 pp. \$4.00 a year. A classified and annotated bibliography of

current guidance materials for use by student, teacher, counselor, and administrator.

GURLEY, F. G. *What Do You Want—How Do You Expect to Get It?* Chicago: The Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railway System, 1015 Railway Exchange. 1949. 18 pp. An address by the president of the ATSF before the Associated Traffic Clubs of America in Houston, Texas, on Oct. 25, 1949, keyed to the controversial issue of private ownership vs. socialization of railroads.

A Handbook of Visual Teaching Aids. Chicago 40: Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5235 Ravenswood Ave. 1949. 31 pp. 10c. An inexpensive guide to basic, sustained-use visual teaching aids, represented by maps, globes, charts, pictures, specimens, and models, with emphasis on effective and maximal use of adequate materials.

HARMON, D. B. *The Co-ordinated Classroom.* Grand Rapids, Mich.: American Seating Co. 1949. 48 pp. Free. Describes results of scientific studies on sight and posture conservation in the classroom. Part One discusses "The Classroom as a Hazard to Child Development"; Part Two, "An Intensive Study of the Effect of the Classroom Environment;" and Part Three, "Notes on Planning a Co-ordinated Classroom."

The Health Dollar. (Money Management Series.) Chicago: Household Finance Corp. 1949. (Rev.) 32 pp. Five cents. On the wise consuming of health services.

Health Educators at Work. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. Press. Oct., 1949. 25c. A special issue of *The High School Journal*, treating these areas: Community Organization for Health Education, School Health in the Total Health Program, State Programs for Better Health, Skills and Techniques in Educating for Health, College, and Professional Training in Health Education.

HOLLISTER, G. E., and STERNIG, JOHN. *Instructional Units in Conservation for Elementary Schools.* Laramie: Bureau of Educational Research, Univ. of Wyoming. 1949. 40 pp. 50c. Units on Soil and Water, Wildlife, Forest and Mineral Resources. Suggested correlations and references.

How Peoples Work Together—The United Nations and the Specialized Agencies. New York: Manhattan Pub. Co., 225 Lafayette St. 1949. The National Citizens' Committee for United Nations Day (700 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.) recommended "How Peoples Work Together" to schools, organizations, civic groups, speakers, and others participating in the observance of United Nations Day. This booklet, prepared by the UN Department of Public Information, describes the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies in simple, readable, graphic terms.

Human Rights and Genocide. (No. 3643.) Washington 25, D. C.: Group Relations Branch, Div. of Pub. Liaison, Dept. of State. 1949. Limited number free; 20c in quantities from Supt. of Doc. Washington 25, D. C. Selected statements on the topics.

HUTCHINS, R. M. *The State of the University.* Chicago: Univ. of Chicago. 1949. 48 pp. A report covering twenty years of his administration. Summarizes key problems of university administration—clarifying and unifying education. Sets forth the principal service of independent universities as setting standards by pioneering in the development of educational programs, methods, and academic freedom.

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- Inventory and Guide for Action (1949-1950)* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1949. 76 pp. 50c. Eight reports on major phases of safety activity, comprising a summary of the President's Highway Safety Conference in the national capital during June, 1949.
- IVINS, W. H. et al. *A Study of a Secondary-School Program in Light of Characteristics and Needs of Youth*. Bloomington, Ind.: Univ. Bookstore. 69 pp. 75c. A study of the needs of youth and the curricular offerings in the field of life adjustment.
- LANE, H. A. *Shall Children, Too, Be Free?* Chicago 4: Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'Rith, 327 S. LaSalle St. 1949. 37 pp. 25c. On the rearing of children in the true traditions of democracy. The tenth in the Freedom Pamphlet series on intergroup relations and the preservation of democratic ideals.
- Latin American Art Exhibits*. Washington, D. C.: Dept. of Cultural Affairs, Pan American Union. 1949. 12 pp. Mimeo. A catalog of exhibits and visual materials available on loan, classified by country and type of visual aid. Mounted paintings, drawings, prints, woodcuts, lithographs, etchings, kodachrome slides, coins, ceramics, photographs, flags, models, maps, products, stamps, crafts, specimens, recordings, and books are listed.
- Lutheran Secondary and Higher Education for Effective Action*. River Forest, Ill.: Lutheran Education Assn., 7400 Augusta St. 1949. 146 pp. \$1.25. This Sixth Year-book purposes to stimulate thinking and action "toward greater effectiveness in the organization and administration of secondary schools and of the educational system for training pastors and teachers in the Lutheran Church." Contains convention and committee reports of 1949.
- The Marshall Plan*. Washington 25, D. C.: Office of Information, Economic Co-operation Administration. 1949. 28 pp. A current report prepared for the ECA Public Advisory Board. Items on the possibilities of increasing Western Europe's dollar earnings; the expansion of U. S. imports, American small business, and ECA; and ECA's information program.
- MAYER, JANE. *Getting Along in the Family*. New York: Bureau of Publications. Teachers College, Columbia Univ. 1949. 44 pp. 60c. Pointers for parents toward harmonious family living.
- McHARRY, L. J. *The Teaching of American Ideals (I)*. Urbana: Illinois Assn. of Tchrs. of English. Nov., 1949. 20 pp. 25c. (\$2.00 per year). Final report of the Curriculum Committee on the Study of the Teaching of American Literature in high schools of the state.
- The Modern School Looks at Television*. Camden, N. J.: Public Relations Dept., RCA Victor Division. 1949. 18 pp. Free. The versatility of television and its adaptability as a classroom tool.
- National Association of Manufacturers, Publications of. New York 20: 14 W. 49th St.
- America's Labor Law*. Leaflet. 22 pp. Summary of Taft-Hartley Law (Labor-Management Relations Act of 1947.)
- Be Glad You're a Real Liberal*. 11 pp. Adapted from an address by Earl Bunting, Managing Director of NAM.

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Trends in Church, Education, and Industry Co-operation. 28 pp. Descriptions of career days, inter-visitation, exchanges, town meetings, etc., illustrative of increased and mutually profitable co-operation.

We've Got to Make Business Act Human. A *Reader's Digest* reprint in condensed form of an address by Morris Sayre, president of the Corn Products Refining Company.

What Inventions Can Mean to You. 68 pp. A seminar, sponsored by the Manufacturers' Association of Syracuse, on the part of patents and research in the American way of life.

Who Profits from Profits. Leaflet. A cartoon analysis of the sales dollar.

Your Future Is What You Make It. 30 pp. Concise counsel for young people ready to enter the work-a-day world. (YOU AND INDUSTRY series.)

Your Opportunity in Management. 31 pp. (YOU AND INDUSTRY series.) Job analyses and requirements paralleled with opportunities and preparation.

The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, Publications of. New York 5: 120 Broadway.

Poliomyelitis. Physiological chart—14 in. x 21 in.

Poliomyelitis Science Unit. Suggestions for its use in biology, social science, English, art, and mathematics.

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Symposium on Poliomyelitis. 97 pp. Reprinted from the *American Journal of Medicine*. Technical in nature. Points up shift in incidence of the disease from childhood to adolescence and adulthood, from paralytic clinical form to multiple strains, from lack of scientific knowledge and therapy toward polyvalent immunization and rehabilitating after-care, and from fear of isolated cases to public alertness against epidemics. The distinguished work of the Neurophysiological Institute of Copenhagen, Denmark, is also presented.



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Teacher's Guide. 32 pp. For use with *Poliomyelitis*, a source book for high-school students. Source materials, visual aids, tests, work sheets, laboratory studies, etc.

National Music Camp. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Joseph E. Maddy, Pres. 1949. 104 pp. A souvenir edition showing the total breadth of day-by-day activities at Interlochen's twenty-second summer season in music, the dance, drama; radio, workshop, and concert experiences; individual and group instruction; social life and entertainment; camp life. Looking forward to the 1950 dates—June 25 to Aug. 21.

A New Era in World Affairs. (No. 3653). Washington 25, D. C.: Group Relations Branch, Div. of Pub. Liaison, Dept. of State. 1949. 59 pp. Free. Selected speeches and statements of President Truman from Jan. 20 to Aug. 29, 1949. Contains "The Faith of the American People"; "The North Atlantic Treaty: A Long Step Toward Peace"; "The Requirements for a Lasting Peace"; "The Point 4 Program: Aid to Under-developed Areas"; "A People's Foreign Policy"; "Collective Security and Freedom from Aggression"; "New Problems in World Prosperity."

Our Southern Neighbors in Review. Washington, D. C.: Crowson Institute of Global Research, Bond Building. 1949. (Rev.) 35c. 17 in. x 22 in. Chart showing statistical, economic, political, historical, cultural, and other aspects of countries of South and Central America and the West Indies. With suggested subjects for study and discussion on every country. Eighth in Pan American series.

PIKE, S. T. *The Educational Challenge of Atomic Energy.* 1949. 4 pp. Mimeo. Remarks of the Commissioner before the Seventh Annual Forum at Christ Church in New York on Oct. 13, 1949.

PRATT, D., and NEHER, J. *Mental Health Is a Family Affair.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th St. 1949. 32 pp. 20c. An approach to mental health stressing preventive measures—chiefly better family relations in techniques in social organization.

President's Conference on Industrial Safety. Washington 25, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Standards, Dept. of Labor. 1949. 362 pp. Proceedings, March 23-25, 1949. The nation's and the states next steps in safety. Committee reports on accident record analysis and use, safety engineering, legislation, research, safety education, etc. The report on education contains recommendations especially for the secondary-school level.

Reading Circle Annual. Madison, Wis.: State Reading Circle Board, State Dept. of Public Instruction. 1949. 83 pp. A list of books, regulations, and awards for Reading Circle activity. Supplements previous lists now out of print. The Reading Circle Movement purposes to instill a love for reading that will carry over into adult life, to create a well-rounded background of information, and to develop a taste for the better things of life. To accomplish these ends, a system of awards has been worked out for every educational level in connection with a minimal plan supervised by teachers. School and local libraries are supplemented by the Traveling Library Department of the state's Free Library Commission. The 1949 list of recommended books contains a section on what might be termed "the new look in book reports," which suggests many methods of departure from the traditional formalized oral or written report.

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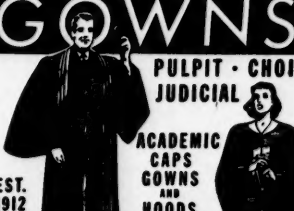
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- Report of Proceedings.* Washington 6, D. C.: Nat. Science Tchrs. Assn., NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 23 pp. Addresses presented at general sessions and recommendations of work-study groups at the Regional Conference on Industry-Science Teaching Relations in Pittsburgh. The address—"Industry Looks to Education" and "Science Education Looks to Industry"—are indicative of the co-operative spirit pervading the meeting. Outlines of group discussions on evaluation and use of industry-sponsored materials also appear.
- The Role of Colleges and Universities in International Understanding.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Pl. 137 pp. The report of the summer conference at Estes Park, which developed, deliberated, and recommended for implementation a three-fold program to lay the defenses of peace through programs of activities that would develop international understanding in institutions of higher learning.
- Soap and Other Detergents.* Chicago: Household Finance Corp. 24 pp. 5c. (LIBRARY SET OF MONEY MANAGEMENT series, \$1.75.) Consumer education on everyday cleaning agents.
- Sponsor Handbook (1950).* Washington 6, D. C.: Science Clubs of America, 1917 N St., N. W. 1949. 110 pp. \$1.00. (Free to Science Club Sponsors.) Information and new approaches that make science club activities more effective. Sections on organization of science clubs, projects, the science fair, Ninth Science Talent Search, recommended books, free and inexpensive materials. Directory.
- State Legislation Affecting School Revenues, 1944-1948.* Washington 6, D. C.: Research Div., NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. Oct. 1949. 48 pp. A study of allocated taxes, school lands, permanent school funds, legislative appropriations from general funds, and school revenue trends.
- The Structure of State Departments of Education.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1949. 80 pp. 40c. A study of underlying factors of central education agencies, their internal structure, and their commendable improvements. Basic data on functional organization is presented by states in chart forms.
- The Structure of Vocational Business Education Curriculums in the Public Junior Colleges of California.* Sacramento: State Dept. of Educ., Bureau of Business Educ. 1949. 64 pp. Report covers 53 public junior colleges. Development of vocational business curriculums is chronicled and analyzed to provide basis for evaluation of old and formulation of new curriculums.
- The Sugar Molecule.* New York 5: Sugar Research Foundation, 52 Wall St. Oct., 1949. 20 pp. [Subscription (quarterly) entered without charge for persons having a special interest in sugar or sugar research.] The relationship between the food industries and public health, with special attention to developments in sugar research pertaining to dental caries, diabetic treatment, and plant physiology.
- SUIT, D. B., et al. *Predicting Success in Professional Schools.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Pl. 1949. 187 pp. \$3.00. Assembles and summarizes the major studies in the field and discusses the role of prediction in counseling. Criteria used in prediction are placed against actual performance records. Specific diagnostic techniques are offered. Contains detailed information

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Teach Them to Lift. (Bulletin No. 110). Washington 25, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Standards, Dept. of Labor. 1949. 8 pp. Limited introductory copies free; quantities from Supt. of Doc., Washington 25, D. C., at 10c, with 25% discount on 100 or more. An illustrated and emphatic lesson on lifting weights to prevent and reduce wide-spread injuries such as hernias, sprains, and strains.

Texas Journal of Secondary Education. Austin: 221 Sutton Hall, Univ. of Texas. Fall, 1949. 24 pp. 35c per copy; \$1.00 per year. Varied articles of interest to secondary-school people. This issue contains a short editorial entitled "A Glimpse at German High Schools," based on a visit there by Arno Jewett.

Time Telling and Its Importance in Our Daily Lives. Lancaster, Pa.: Educ. Service Dept., Hamilton Watch Co. 1949. 16 pp. The company's first specially prepared teacher's aid. The story of the evolution of man's abstract concept of time and scientific progress in recording its passage. Basically, the mechanics of a watch are dealt with, but this material may be used as a point of departure onto tangents of related sciences, history, sociology, economics, etc. Wall chart and test sheet available.

Trading Ideas with the World. (No. 3551). Washington 25, D. C.: Group Relations Branch, Div. of Public Liaison, Dept. of State. 1949. 88 pp. Limited distribution free; when exhausted, 55c from Supt. of Doc., Washington 25, D. C. A report by the U. S. Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange. Views technical and educational exchange as an integral part of foreign policy. Reviews U. S. Govt. activities in this field.

Trends in the Employment of Young Workers. New York 16: National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Ave. 1949. 21 pp. Employment and unemployment among young workers stated in facts and figures. Summarizes Federal and state legislative action during 1949. Outlines the current program and activities of the Committee. Lists recent publications on the subject.

U. S. Atomic Energy Commission. *Handling Radioactive Wastes in the Atomic Energy Program.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1949. 30 pp. 15c. The nontechnical report describes radioactivity and its biological effects; types, sources, and handling of wastes to protect the public against radioactive contamination; research program on storage and processing.

University of Oregon, Publications of. Eugene: Instructional Materials Laboratory, School of Education. The University of Oregon Instructional Materials Laboratory announces the re-establishment of its *Curriculum Bulletin* series with the release of five new numbers of interest to supervisors and school administrators.

No. 57. *Instructional Aids to Learning.* 47 pp. 50c. A comprehensive list of bibliographies and sources of audio-visual aids brought up to date July, 1949.

No. 58. *Free and Inexpensive Teaching Materials.* 22 pp. 25c. A list of 200 firms and agencies that distribute free and inexpensive educational materials of value in most subject areas.

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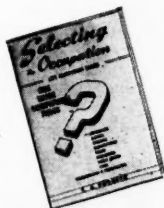
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